

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 189 866

FL 011 447

AUTHOR Engel, Elyse: And Others
TITLE Handbook of English Grammar for Teachers of English as a Second Language.
INSTITUTION Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation, Toronto.
PUB DATE Feb 79
NOTE 120p.
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adjectives: Classroom Techniques: *English (Second Language): *Grammar: Inservice Teacher Education: Nouns: *Second Language Instruction: Sentence Structure: Teaching Methods: Verbs

ABSTRACT

The contents of this handbook are designed to help teachers clarify, in their own minds, many of the grammatical points that might be raised in the English as a second language classroom. Each chapter ends with exercises and a discussion of classroom implications of the topics raised. Chapter I covers parts of speech, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and function words. Chapter II discusses word order and sentence patterns. Topics covered in Chapter III include noun phrase structure, premodifiers, postmodifiers, the article system, and functions of noun phrases. Chapter IV covers verb phrase, verb patterns, grammatical properties, lexical verbs, auxiliary verbs, finite vs. non-finite, and adverbials. Chapter V discusses coordination and subordination, semantic implications, linked units, and other forms of linking. Topics covered in chapter VI include affirmative and negative statements, questions, commands, "it" and "there" as subjects, and embedded sentences. The final chapter is devoted to a discussion of structural vs. functional. A bibliography is appended. (JB)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

HANDBOOK OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR
for Teachers of English as a Second Language

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
L. Butovsky, OMCR

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO-
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN-
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT
OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

This handbook, prepared by Elyse Engel, is
a revised edition of the former Ministry
publication English Structure Handbook by
Lillian Butovsky and Judy Rapaport-Buchwald.

Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation

CONTENTS

Foreword

Chapter I

- 1.0 Parts of Speech
- 1.1 Nouns
- 1.2 Verbs
- 1.3 Adjectives
- 1.4 Adverbs
- 1.5 Function Words

Exercises

Implications

Chapter II

- 2.0 Word Order
- 2.1 Sentence Patterns

Exercises

Implications

Chapter III

- 3.0 Noun Phrase Structure
- 3.1 Premodifiers
- 3.2 Postmodifiers
- 3.3 The Article System
- 3.4 Functions of Noun Phrases

Exercises

Implications

Chapter IV

- 4.0 Verb Phrase
- 4.1 Verb Patterns
- 4.2 Grammatical Properties
- 4.3 Lexical Verbs
- 4.4 Auxiliary Verbs
- 4.5 Finite vs. Non Finite
- 4.6 Adverbials

Exercises

Implications

Chapter V

5.0 Coordination and Subordination

5.1 Semantic Implications

5.2 Linked Units

5.3 Other Forms of Linking

Exercises

Implications

Chapter VI

6.0 Affirmative Statements

6.1 Negative Statements

6.2 Questions

6.3 Commands

6.4 *It* as Subject

6.5 *There* as Subject

6.6 Embedded Sentences

Exercises

Implications

Chapter VII

7.0 Structural vs. Functional

Bibliography

Index

FOREWORD

Handbook of English Grammar has been written to provide background information for teachers of English as a second language rather than for use by ESL students. The contents are designed to help teachers clarify, in their own minds, many of the grammatical points which might be raised in the classroom. Although neither the grammatical explanations or exercises in this book are intended for use by ESL students, some thought has been given, at the end of each chapter and in the concluding chapter, to classroom implications of the topics raised. We hope teachers will find this text useful both in daily teaching and as background for further reading.

We would like to thank a number of people for their help: the members of the Ministry of Education TESL Course Advisory Committee who encouraged us to produce this handbook; Professor Ronald Wardhaugh of the University of Toronto who gave us valuable advice in both the planning and writing stages; Florence MacCuaig and Beverley Allix who respectively typed and proof-read the manuscript.

Language training publications are produced by the Ministry of Culture and Recreation with the financial support of the Department of the Secretary of State. For a full listing of publications available through the Newcomer Services Branch, write for the brochure "Materials and Services".

We would welcome your comments on this and other ESL publications. Please address correspondence to Lillian Butovsky, Newcomer Services Branch, 5th Floor, 77 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, M7A 2R9, or telephone (416) 965-4331.

CHAPTER I

1.0 PARTS OF SPEECH

1.1 NOUNS

1.11 Position

1.12 Inflection

(1) Number

(2) Genitive

(i) Singular Noun

(ii) Plural Noun not ending in -s

(iii) Plural Noun

(iv) Proper Noun ending in s

1.13 Pronouns

(1) Position

(2) Inflection

(i) Number

(ii) Genitive

(iii) Person

(iv) Objective Case

(v) Gender

(3) No Determiners

1.2 VERBS

1.21 Position

1.22 Inflection

(1) Number

(2) Person

1.23 Tense

1.24 Voice and Aspect

1.3 ADJECTIVES

1.31 Position

1.32 Comparison

1.4 ADVERBS

1.41 Form

1.42 Function

(1) Adverbial

(2) Modifier

1.43 Position

1.5 FUNCTION WORDS

1.51 Meaning

1.52 Function

(1) Maintenance of Structure

(2) Markers of Form Classes

1.53 Class Size

1.54 No Derivational Endings

SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FORM CLASSES AND STRUCTURE WORDS

EXERCISES

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Parts of Speech

(2) Inflection

(3) Form Classes vs. Structure Words

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Our understanding of an English sentence depends on a multitude of factors, all operating simultaneously and influencing one another equally.

We must be familiar with the context in which the sentence occurs. That is, we must be aware that the meaning of any sentence is related to a whole text of sentences and that it is affected by social factors. The relationship of social context, sentence text, and sentence structure will be discussed in a later chapter.

We must be familiar with the structural elements each sentence has. First, we must be able to recognize the pattern in which the sentence occurs, although we might not be able to identify the pattern consciously. We must also know the "dictionary" or "lexical" meaning of each word in the sentence, or at least be able to make an accurate guess at anything unfamiliar. In addition, we must know the grammatical function of each part of the sentence, even though, here again, we might not be able to name the grammatical form.

For example, read this series of words: *he, the, demands, changes*. You probably understand the meaning of each word, but the composite message will be comprehensible only when the words are arranged in a sentence pattern. One possibility is:

He demands the changes.

The message is clear because you know the meaning of the words and because you recognize the pattern. This particular pattern can be identified as "subject-verb-object" or as "noun-transitive verb-noun". However, the same words and the same pattern can be used to express an entirely different message.

He changes the demands.

You perceive a difference in the meaning of these two sentences because you recognize how the words work within the patterns. You recognize that *demands* is a verb in the first sentence and a noun in the second.

You knew that the two sample sentences given above have different meanings, although you might not have been able to say that it was because *demands* was first a verb and then a noun.

Awareness of parts of speech, then, is essential to our understanding or formation of sentences.

1.0 PARTS OF SPEECH

The parts of speech can be classified into five groups. Nouns and verbs, and words that describe nouns and verbs, adjectives and adverbs, comprise four form classes. They are called "form classes" because they have special features which mark their forms. Other words, like *the* in the sample sentences, are called function or structure words. These words help clarify the relationship between the form classes and maintain the structure of sentences. All these groups have certain characteristics which set them apart from one another.

1.1 NOUNS

Nouns are words like *table* or *book* or *chair*. Any word which has the same grammatical features as *table*, *book*, or *chair* is a noun.

1.11 Position

One such marker that has already been demonstrated is position in a pattern. In a pattern involving a transitive verb, you know that the subject and object positions will be filled with nouns. This knowledge helped you understand the sample sentences.

1.12 Inflection

Another feature of nouns is inflection. Inflection adds meaning to a noun by slightly changing its form. Inflectional endings can indicate number, the plurality or singularity of the noun, and can indicate the genitive case of which the most frequent example is the possessive.

(1) Number

With a few exceptions all nouns may be inflected for number.

The vast majority of nouns are pluralized by the addition of s or es in the written language, and, in speech, by the addition

of /s/, /z/, or /ɹz/. (These plural forms are dealt with in the Phonology Outline.)

There remain, however, some remnants of older English patterns:

e.g.	foot	feet
	child	children
	tooth	teeth
	mouse	mice
	man	men

Notice that these irregular nouns are all common, high-frequency words. Although teachers might well begin their lessons on plurals and with the regular forms, they should not delay the introduction of these important irregular forms.

New nouns added to the language all have the regular plural form. For example, *mini*, *minis*; *hippie*, *hippies*, *bus*, *buses*.

In the case of learned words borrowed from the Latin or Greek we sometimes have the choice of the English or the original plural:

e.g.	focus	foci or focuses
	formula	formulae or formulas
	alumnus	alumni
	phenomenon	phenomena

Otherwise, words borrowed from other languages have regular English plurals. For example, the word *boutique*, borrowed from the French to glamorize small shops, is pronounced in the plural as /butiks/ and not as the French pattern would require - /butik/. Similarly - one *sputnik*, two *sputniks*, one *pizza*, two *pizzas*.

Even words "patented" by one man are subject to the rules of the language. Thus Al Capp's *schmoo*, taken into the hearts and vocabularies of thousands of Americans (though perhaps pronounced as *smoo* in some areas), was pluralized by them as *schmoos* although Capp himself had specified that the plural should be *schmoon*. He might have predicted that this plural would never catch on, for, whereas content words, especially nouns, are added or dropped with the changing times, function words and inflections, which represent the core of the language, are far more stable.

Exceptions

A. Words like *sheep*, *deer*, *grouse* have the same form in the singular and plural. (For some speakers the plural of *fish* is *fishes*;

for others both plural and singular are identical.)

In most cases, however, we can easily tell from the context whether it is the singular or plural that is being referred to, as when the noun is preceded by an indefinite article:

e.g. a I caught a fish
some I caught some fish

or when the noun is the subject of the verb *to be* in the simple present or simple past tenses, or any other verb in the simple present:

e.g. was The fish wasn't biting.
weren't The fish weren't biting.
looks The fish looks sick.
look The fish look sick.

B. Expressions of quantity like *dozen*, *head*, etc.

e.g. ten dozen bars of ...

C. Mass nouns like *sugar*, *salt*, *sand*, *money*, etc. (This group of nouns is discussed in detail in the section entitled "The Noun Phrase - The Article System".)

(2) Genitive

The genitive inflection is another marker of nouns. In writing it appears as 's (apostrophe s) or s' (s apostrophe) depending on the form of the noun. In speech it is marked by the addition of the sounds /s/, /z/, or /əz/.

- (i) a girl's dress (singular noun)
- (ii) the children's toys (plural noun not ending in -s)
- (iii) two girls' dresses (plural noun)
- (iv) C.C. Fries' grammar (proper noun ending in s)

Sometimes the genitive appears not as an inflected form but as an of phrase.

e.g. the eye of the storm

The meanings of the genitive inflection are varied. Listed on the following page are examples of the various meanings with analogous statements or phrases. The *of* genitive is given where possible.

Genitive

Analogues

Possessive genitive

my son's wife	my son has a wife
Mrs. Johnson's passport	Mrs. Johnson has a passport
cf the gravity of the earth	the earth has gravity

Subjective genitive

the boy's application	the boy applied
his parents' consent	his parents consented
cf the rise of the sun	the sun rose

Objective genitive

the family's support	(...) supports the family
the boy's release	(...) released the boy
cf a statement of facts	(...) stated the facts

Genitive of origin

the girl's story	the girl told a story
the general's letter	the general wrote a letter
cf the wines of France	France produced the wines

Descriptive genitive

a women's college	a college for women
a summer's day	a summer day/a day in summer
a doctor's degree)	a doctoral degree/a doctorate
cf the degree of doctor)	

(This table comes from Quirk and Greenbaum, p. 95)

1.13 Pronouns

Personal pronouns can be considered as a sub-class of nouns because they have many of the same markers.

(1) Position

The subjective and objective forms of pronouns take the same positions as nouns:

e.g. The boy hits the ball.
He hits the ball.
I hit him.

(2) Inflection

(i) Like nouns, pronouns are inflected for number:

e.g. boy/boys
he/they

(ii) Like nouns, pronouns are inflected to show the possessive genitive.

e.g. boy/boy's
he/his

There are, however, a number of features which make pronouns distinct from nouns. Most of these differences are inflectional.

(iii) Pronouns change their form for person.

e.g. I, you, he

We - can refer to the speaker and hearer and perhaps others (inclusive) or to the speaker and others but not the hearer (exclusive). The inclusive *we* is frequently drilled through action chains in which two or more members of the class intone simultaneously, "*We're getting up, we're going to the door*" etc., but the exclusive *we* is generally given little practice.

You - ESL students often find puzzling the fact that in English we have only one second person pronoun. In Greek, French, Italian, etc. two different second person pronouns are used, according to the number of people addressed and the degree of familiarity.

	Singular Familiar	Plural Familiar	Singular	Plural
English	you	you	you	you
French	tu	vous	vous	vous
Italian	tu	voi	lei	loro
German	du	Ihr	Sie	Sie
Spanish	tu	vosotros	usted	ustedes

(iv) Pronouns are inflected not only for the possessive, but also for the objective (accusative) case. The objective inflection in the pronoun is the only remnant of the objective case system in English.

e.g. Subjective	Objective
I	me
he	him
she	her
we	us
they	them
who	whom

Notice that you is unaltered, and acts very much like a noun:

e.g. You can come.

I saw you. (word order tells us that you is object)

I gave you the book. (again word order indicates the role of you)

I gave the book to you. (the function word to indicates the role of you)

(v) Unlike nouns, pronouns are inflected for gender:

e.g. he, she, it.

(3) Pronouns do not admit determiners, an additional factor making them different from nouns.

e.g. The boy is here.

He is here.

1.2 VERBS

A verb is a word like *sing*, *beautify*, or *arrive*. That is, it has the same grammatical properties as *sing*, *beautify*, or *arrive*. These grammatical properties distinguish verbs from the other parts of speech.

1.21 Position

The verb is used after a subject, or before an object or complement. The verb often appears before the subject in questions and in sentences or clauses that begin with certain types of negative adverbs.

e.g. The man hit the ball.

Was he sick?

Rarely did he seem sick.

1.22 Inflection

Verbs are inflected for number and person. Both these properties require agreement between the subject and the verb.

(1) Number

Only in the verb *to be*, present and past tense, and in the third person present tense for all other verbs is there any agreement in number between subject and verb.

Agreement in Number

	be		other verbs	
	present	past	present	past
I	am	was	know	knew
You	are	were	know	knew
They				
He	is	was	knows	knew
She				
It				

(2) Person

The verb inflections for number are associated with inflection for person:

e.g. the s of he likes indicates 3rd person (singular)
am indicates 1st person (singular)
is indicates 3rd person (singular)

Thus, if I were to say *am happy today* the listener would probably know that I was speaking about myself; if I said *are happy* there would be no way of knowing if I were referring to *we*, *you* or *they*. It is important for the ESL teacher to know that in many languages all the verbs are inflected for number and person so that, in fact, one normally does not use a personal pronoun:

e.g. I'm going in Italian is simply vado.

There is no need to include the personal pronoun *io*, in fact if you do say *io vado* there is special emphasis on the *I* as in *John may be staying at home but I'm going*.

This difference may account in part for the tendency of many students to omit the personal pronoun when it is subject of the sentence:

e.g. Is John for He's John.

Almost all students have difficulty with the dummy subject it as in:

It's raining.

It's five o'clock.

It's difficult.

as there is no equivalent in their native language. In Italian for example, *it's difficult* is *e difficile* (literally, *is difficult*).

1.23 Tense

Except in the first and third person of the present tense, the time of an event is signalled by inflection on a verb or by auxiliary verbs. One verb in every sentence is inflected for time.

The simple past tense is the only one of the time distinctions expressed in present day English that is still distinguished by inflection:

e.g. I walk
I walked

The regular past tense inflection, of course, is, in writing *ed*, in speech /t/, /d/ or /əd/, depending on the final sound of the verb stem. (Discussed in the Phonology outline.) All new verbs added to the language would have this regular past tense inflection.

Many verbs have irregular past tense inflections:

e.g. I see
I saw

The future uses an accompanying auxiliary verb to show time:

e.g. I'll see.

1.24 Voice and Aspect

Other features of verbs such as markers for voice (active or passive) and aspect (the duration or point of time that the verb expresses) will be dealt with in Chapter Four.

1.3 ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a modifier. It is a word like *happy*, *beautiful*, or *good* and bears certain grammatical features.

1.31 Position

Usually the adjective occurs before the noun it modifies.

e.g. The beautiful book is on the table.

The adjective can occur in other positions and these will be dealt with in Chapter Three.

1.32 Comparison

The grammatical property of comparison is a marker of most adjectives. It is signalled by either inflection or the addition of an intensifier.

Adjectives of one syllable, or two-syllable adjectives ending in *y* are inflected for comparison:

short	shorter	shortest
heavy	heavier	heaviest

A small group of adjectives have irregular forms:

bad	worse	worst
good	better	best

For all other adjectives we use the intensifiers *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* to indicate degree:

intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
	less intelligent	least intelligent

For the ESL teacher there are three considerations to bear in mind when teaching comparison:

1. It may be dangerous to always think in terms of the paradigm:

e.g. short shorter shortest

A man of 5' 10" is not *short* but he may be *shorter* than his brother of 6'. A man of 6' 6" may also be shorter than someone else, than a brother of 6' 8", for example. In this case, we would probably be more likely to say - He's not as tall as his brother.

2. Whereas it is safe enough to substitute *Paul isn't as tall as his brother* with *Paul is shorter than his brother*, beware of exercises including sentences like the following: *Paul isn't as intelligent as his brother*.

1.4 ADVERBS

The distinguishing characteristics of adverbs are more difficult to isolate than those of the other parts of speech. The difficulty lies in the wide variety of form, meaning and function that adverbs have.

1.41 Form

The -ly suffix is a common characteristic of many adverbs:

e.g. He walked slowly.

There are also many adverbs that do not take the -ly ending:

e.g. He sometimes walks to school.

1.42 Function

The adverb has a variety of functions.

(1) Modifier

The adverb can act as a modifier of three parts of speech, the verb, the adjective and the adjective.

e.g. She is improving slowly.
 She is improving unusually slowly.
 That is a terribly exciting book.

Often the adverbs which modify adverbs and adjectives are a sub-group called intensifiers, like *very*, *quite* or *rather*; while the adverbs which modify verbs have a strong lexical meaning of their own.

(2) Adverbial

The adverb can act as an adverbial, a distinct constituent of the sentence. It can relate to all of or part of the sentence.

e.g. Unfortunately, I was too sick to go.

Here the adverb is a comment on part of the sentence.

Although the functions listed above are the most commonly described, adverbs have many other functions. However, the wide variety of functions the adverb has makes it rather difficult to use function as a distinguishing characteristic.

1.43 Position

Most adverbs can be put in any of three positions:

- e.g. Sometimes she writes well.
 She sometimes writes well.
 She writes well sometimes.

The initial position seems to have the greatest emphasis. Some adverbs can only fit into certain positions.

- e.g. Come here.

The maneuverability of adverbs makes position rather difficult to use as a determining characteristic of adverbs.

Teachers usually concern themselves with only two features of adverbs. They usually emphasize the -ly ending of most adverbs as the identifying characteristic. As well, they teach the position and usage of the adverbs of frequency:

- e.g. sometimes, always, often.

Usually, this is taught in conjunction with the simple present to highlight the meaning:

- e.g. He often smokes cigarettes.

Although these two features are important, they certainly do not provide an adequate explanation of adverbs. Not exposing students to the variety of functions, forms, and meanings of this part of speech will provide students with a rather limited ability to communicate.

1.5 FUNCTION WORDS

Function or structure words comprise the fifth group of words. They are quite different from the words in the four form classes.

1.51 Meaning

Function words do not provide the primary meaning of a sentence. In fact, a sentence need not have any function words.

e.g. Come here.

The primary meaning of a sentence comes from the content words or the four form classes.

1.52 Function

Structure words maintain the underlying structure of a sentence and often signal the presence of another part of speech.

Look at this first stanza of Lewis Carroll's "Jabberwocky":

'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe
All mimsy were the borogoves
And the mome raths outgrabe.

No one can ever know the meaning of the eleven nonsense words in this stanza, yet almost everyone will agree on the part of speech to which each nonsense word belongs; and be able to ask and answer direct questions based on the poem.

First let's determine the part of speech to which each word belongs.

'Twas	<u>brillig</u> ,	and	<u>the</u>	<u>slithy</u>	<u>toves</u>	either noun - It was morning, or adjective - It was sultry.	signals that a noun is soon to follow	adjective - has a common suffix for deriving adjective from noun	noun - plural suffix
Did	<u>gyre</u>	and	<u>gimble</u>	<u>in</u>	the	wabe.	could be noun - Did homework, or more likely main verb - Did dance and sing	noun soon to follow	

All mimsy were the borogroves
And the mome raths outgrabe.

Now answer these questions:

What kind of toves were they?
What did they do in the wabe?
Where did they gyre and gimble?
Who or what gyred and gimbled in the wabe?

Only the phrase 'twas *brillig* presents any uncertainty.

Now replace the nonsense words with genuine English nouns, adjectives and verbs, thereby making up your own poem.

'Twas _____, and the _____
Did _____ and _____ in the _____
All _____ were the _____
And the _____.

The rewritten lines might be:

'Twas evening, and the lively elves
Did dance and gambol in the glade.

Now look at the following two lines. This time nouns, adjectives and verbs are English, but the other words have been replaced by nonsense words.

Jabe evening, thim rit lively elves
Gobe dance thim gambol lo rit glade.

These two lines manifest a different kind of unintelligibility from the Jabberwocky lines. If someone said to you *It was brillig* you could ask *What's brillig?* or if they said *They gyred and gimbled* you could come back with *What's gyre?* or *What's gyring?* This is, in fact, one means we have for learning new vocabulary. But with the above two lines we don't even know what questions to ask! There seem to be some familiar words but they are in a completely alien context. In the case of the previous Jabberwocky stanza however, there was a completely English structural context, with some unfamiliar words.

The examples above make two characteristics of function words clear.

(1) Maintenance of Structure

The structure of a language depends not upon the nouns (*wabe*), verbs (*gyre*), adjectives (*slithy*), or adverbs but rather upon the function words, such as *and*, *it*.

(2) Markers of Form Classes

Many of the other parts of speech are marked for us by the function words. Words such as *the*, *a*, *my*, *every*, regularly signal a noun. These features helped you recognize the Jabberwocky stanza as English and allowed you to answer the questions that followed.

1.53 Class Size

Another feature which distinguishes the structure words from the form classes is that there is a limited number of structure words and that this number is not being increased. There are only a certain number of determiners, (*the*, *a*, *every*), prepositions, (*with*, *on*) or conjunctions, (*and*, *but*), and these are not being changed or added to. In contrast, the noun and verb classes are constantly being added to.

1.54 Lack of Derivational Endings

The four form classes have certain endings which distinguish them from each other. One idea can be represented in all four classes but will be marked differently by the derivational ending for each class, for example: *decorate*, *decoration*, *decorative*, *decoratively*. (These endings are different than inflectional endings in that they only mark the part of speech while inflectional endings also add meaning to a word, such as plurality or time.) Structure words are not distinguished by derivational endings. Ideas that may appear in all four form classes will not appear among the structure words.

SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FORM CLASSES AND STRUCTURE WORDS

Form Classes	Structure
-nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs	-substitutes (this, these, one, here, etc.) articles, prepositions, conjunctions, question words, auxiliaries.
-bear the primary meaning of the sentence.	-maintain structure and mark form classes (articles are almost purely structural markers while prepositions have a much greater part in signalling meaning.)
-a large number in any language	-a small number in any language
-an open class. Individuals add to their store of content words throughout their life-time. New words are added to the language with developments in science, technology, etc.	-a closed class. Individuals learn all these words early in life. An attempt to add new function words to the language would meet with no success.
-are marked by inflection and derivational endings	-are marked by derivational endings and only occasionally by inflection (e.g. a, some).

EXERCISES

(1) Beside each of the following write the uninflected form of the word underlined. Indicate the meaning of the inflection:

1. geese
2. He waltzed.

3. John's book
4. She gave him the book.
5. He loves to dance.
6. The whole space is ours.
7. We meet on Sundays.
8. She seems like a nice girl.
9. The women have their own team.
10. The girls' dresses are too short.

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Parts of Speech

Although an awareness of the parts of speech is necessary for communication, the ability to name the parts of speech or list their characteristics is not essential to learning the language. You were quite capable, at the age of four, of producing an English sentence without being able to say which words are nouns or what makes a noun a noun. Second language learners must be made aware of the parts of speech but there is no reason to teach students how to define them.

(2) Inflection

Inflection is a property that identifies different parts of speech and adds meaning. The -s ending can identify nouns and verbs, but it has entirely different meanings in each case. On the noun it can mean plurality; on the verb it can mean singularity, for example:

The ballss fall.

The ball fallss.

There are two implications here. If a student is taught that -s means plurality, he will be confused when he encounters it on a verb. He would be better advised if he were taught to think that number is a concept that can be marked in nouns in a number of ways (e.g. *man/men*), one of which is the -s ending.

Secondly, students very often omit the -s ending on verbs. One reason for this is that its significance has not been made clear. If students fully understood that the -s ending marks not only tense and number but also identifies the verb as a verb, they might be less inclined to leave it out.

(3) Form Classes vs. Structure Words

It is quite possible for a person with a small vocabulary, if it includes the function words, to speak much more acceptably and effectively than a person with a very large vocabulary containing few function words.

Naive language students generally feel that what they need is more vocabulary, i.e. more form class words, when actually what is lacking is control of the structural signals of the language - word order, function words, inflectional affixes. Once these have been mastered new vocabulary is easily learned.

A number of texts on the market, however, cater to the new learner's misconceptions regarding vocabulary. One of these contains long lists of low frequency but impressive looking words (ado, muster, semblance, tarry) which the student is required to look up in the dictionary and then fit into a list of unrelated, highly unlikely sentences:

e.g. We are going to advertise the loss of our dog through the medium of the local newspapers.

The teacher asked me to cite an example of the bravery of the early colonists.

Such texts should be avoided. There are far better ways for the student to increase his vocabulary once he has come to grips with the structure of English. (These include grouping related words, teaching in context, etc.)

Students sometimes feel that the reason they cannot understand a particular sentence is because they don't know the meaning of one of the words in it. The fact is, though, that if they had control of the structure of the language, they could probably arrive at the meaning of the unfamiliar word through its context. This is what

native speakers do. Students should be encouraged to make educated guesses before grabbing for their dictionary. A sentence like the following might puzzle the intermediate or advanced student:

She blushed and I realized how indiscreet I had been.

The teacher should determine whether it is the vocabulary items, *blush*, *indiscreet*, that cause the difficulty or whether it is the construction *how* _____ *I had been*.

METHODOLOGY

Making students aware of grammatical features and encouraging students to use the parts of speech accurately, while keeping in mind that the main goal is communicative ability and not structural knowledge, is a difficult task. There are a variety of ways in which it should be handled.

(1) Comparison and Contrast

Drawing parallels and showing contrasts between the use of words or ideas is one teaching strategy that can be effective. For example, showing that both nouns and verbs are inflected for number might sensitize students to the importance of agreement between the subject and the verb; or, showing that determiners mark nouns might focus the students' attention on the distribution of articles.

(2) Recognition Exercises

Recognition exercises, in which students are asked to underline or orally pick out words or phrases functioning similarly is another learning strategy that would help students appreciate the structure of English.

(3) Pattern Drills

Pattern drills and the occasional use of nonsense words within an oral drill or of symbols within a written pattern can also be an effective learning strategy.

In one of the films available from the Newcomer Services Branch, "Cumulative Oral Drills", you will find a good example of the importance of sentence pattern drilling, as opposed to vocabulary memorization. The demonstrating teacher, Mr. Santin, after teaching the pattern *I got the bank to lend me some money* replaces the words *bank* and *money* with nonsense syllables. The students are nevertheless able to reply to the questions:

Who lent me the X?

What did they lend me?

At the end of the demonstration, Mr. Santin explains that he is not advocating the use of nonsense syllables, but is simply proving something to his students. (The day before the filming of this unrehearsed demonstration, the students had been concerned about what they would do if Mr. Santin used an unfamiliar word. He told them not to worry; if they knew the pattern, not knowing the meaning of one word wouldn't bother them. And the demonstration proved it.)

A word here might be said about the importance of teaching new words in familiar patterns and new patterns with familiar words.

A text by William E. Rutherford, entitled Modern English, makes frequent use of a type of exercise entitled "Garbled Speech", which aims at giving students practice in understanding the structure of sentences (as well as giving them practise in asking questions - something students rarely do enough of).

e.g. Teacher: He dropped in while we were shrdlu.

Student: What were you doing when he dropped in?

Teacher: We ran into shrdlu at the drugstore.

Student: Who did you run into at the drugstore?

Teacher: I'll shrdlu when it gets dark.

Student: What will you do when it gets dark?

The teaching of function words requires careful preparation. The meaning of *chair* and *table* can be readily demonstrated. Abstract nouns can be taught by presenting them in elucidative contexts. But how do you teach function words such as the articles *a* and *the*, especially to students whose native language is Slavic and thus has no equivalent to our articles? This problem is dealt with in further detail in the section entitled "Noun Phrase - Determiners".

CHAPTER 2

INTRODUCTION

2.0 WORD ORDER

2.1 SENTENCE PATTERNS

2.11 Pattern I

2.12 Pattern II

2.13 Pattern III

2.14 Pattern IV

2.15 Pattern V

2.16 Pattern VI

2.17 Pattern VII

2.18 Pattern VIII

2.19 Pattern IX

EXERCISES

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Word Order

(2) Sentence Patterns

INTRODUCTION

Sentences are grammatical units through which people communicate. Sentences are rarely produced in isolation. A group of sentences usually forms a whole text and the sentences affect one another within the text. The text may be spoken, such as a conversation, or written, such as a paragraph.

Structurally, sentences vary and may not always be complete. Because there are so many other clues to a speaker's message, from the sentence text and from the social situation, a spoken sentence doesn't have to be complete for a listener to understand it. A guest would have no trouble understanding a hostess who, while holding a cup of coffee, asked:

Milk? Sugar?

There are fewer external clues to meaning in written texts so written sentences are generally complete in structure.

Since the sentence is such an important unit of communication, the principles of sentence formation need to be fully examined. This chapter deals with word order and sentence patterns.

2.0 WORD ORDER

Three grammatical devices signal meaning and affect the appearance and position of the parts of speech in a sentence. They are, in order of importance:

1. word order
2. inflection
3. use of function words

Word order is the order of the parts of speech in relation to one another. It is of primary importance because it can be the sole feature which determines meaning in a sentence.

e.g. It's a flower garden.
It's a garden flower.

In these examples, word order alone signifies which word is the head noun and which word is the modifier. Word order is such a vital grammatical signal that it can override other signals in determining meaning. For instance, look at this example and make it into an acceptable English sentence:

*Her liked he very much.

Although there are two choices -

(1) She liked him very much.

(2) He liked her very much.

- most people favor the first choice. This is because word order is so vital that our impulse is to adjust the inflection of the pronouns rather than change the word order.

In English, word order is relatively rigid. In some other languages, inflection is more important than order for conveying meaning so the words don't have to be maintained in an inflexible order. For example, an Italian could ask the same question in three different ways:

(1) Mangia lei il maiale?

(2) Lei mangia il maiale?

(3) Mangia il maiale lei?

All three questions ask you if you eat pork. A German could similarly vary the order of his words without significantly altering the meaning of a sentence. A student whose first language relies more on inflection and less on word order might have some real difficulties in English in which the reverse is true.

2.1 SENTENCE PATTERNS

The position of the parts of speech in relation to one another is governed by word order. The sequence of these elements in a sentence is determined by sentence patterns.

A sentence pattern is a "prototype", a generalized grammatical form from which numerous specific sentences can be made. For example, the pattern

N^1 Tr V N^2

can appear as the sentence

I always buy my cigarettes at the store.

*indicates ungrammatical sentence

This is a specific sentence based on a particular grammatical arrangement of words. By substituting for the words in this sentence other words belonging to the same grammatical class, we can make many more sentences without disturbing the grammatical arrangement of the words:

e.g. He always buys my cigarettes at the drugstore.

He always buys his pills at the drugstore.

We never get our groceries at the drugstore.

She always eats her dinner at the restaurant.

etc.

In the methodology outline you will be reading about the use of such sentence patterns for teaching. Our concern here is not how to use them, but simply how to identify them. In English we use a limited number of basic patterns and a multitude of sub-patterns. It will now be our purpose to examine the basic sentence patterns of English. The following list has been compiled from a variety of sources.

2.11 Pattern I

	N (phrase)	be	Adj. (phrase)
e.g.	Food	is	good.
	That food	is	poisonous.
	The boys	were	busy.
	The party	must have been	enjoyable.

2.12 Pattern II

	N (phrase)	be	UW (uninflected word)
e.g.	The girl	is	here.
	The picnic	will be	outside.
	The wolf	is	at the door.
	The game	will be	at five o'clock.

In this pattern the verb *be* often, but not always, has a meaning something like *be located* or *occurs*, whereas the *be* of Pattern I means *may be described as*. The third position in Pattern II is occupied by uninflected words such as: *here, there, up, down, in, out, outside, inside, upstairs, downstairs, on, off, now, then, soon, tomorrow, yesterday, over, through, above, below, before, after*. Often a prepositional phrase with a *there* or *then* meaning will occupy the third place.

2.13 Pattern III

	N ¹ (phrase)	be	N ¹ (phrase)
e.g.	My brother	is	a doctor.
	It	is	I.
	That	is	mine.
	She	must be	your roommate.
	She	never had been	an honor student.
	The trouble	is	that we are short of money.

In this pattern the two noun phrases (or pronouns, as the case may be) have the same referent. The meaning of *be* here is *be classified as*.

2.14 Pattern IV

	N (phrase)	In V (Intransitive verb phrase)
e.g.	Girls	giggle.
	The sun	was shining.
	The sportsmen	fished early.
	The sportsmen	were fishing in the stream when we drove by.
	We	stopped to have a rest.
	He	came to get well.
	She	walked for five miles.
	They	went upstairs.

The verbs in this pattern are of the kind called intransitive verbs. An intransitive verb is self-sufficient. It can stand alone with its subject. It can also be modified by words and word groups known as adverbs, *upstairs*, *early*, and adverbials, *in the stream*. But it cannot be completed by a noun or a pronoun.

2.15 Pattern V

	N ¹ (phrase)	Tr V	N ² (phrase)
e.g.	The girl	bought	a dress.
	I	know	your name.
	I	put	the book on the table.
			(note that the final phrase is obligatory)

In Pattern V the verb is completed by a noun phrase (or pronoun) for which one can substitute *him*, *her*, *it*, *them*. This noun does not have the same referent as the subject. It is called the direct object. With two kinds of pronouns, however, the direct

object does have the same referent as the subject. These are the reflexive pronouns (e.g. *herself*) and the reciprocal pronouns (e.g. *each other*). The verb in this pattern, because it is completed by a direct object, is called a transitive verb.

A transitive verb has two forms, one active and the other passive.

e.g. The waitress poured the coffee.

The coffee was poured (by the waitress).

Sentences with reflexive or reciprocal pronouns cannot be formed in the passive. There is also a small group of transitive verbs which do not form the passive. These are illustrated in the following sentences.

She	saw	herself.
They	found	each other.
The key	fits	the lock.
Joe	resembles	his father.
I	have	a friend.
The settlement	suited	him.
This	means	war.

In some of the subpatterns of Pattern V the verb can be completed by constructions other than nouns or pronouns.

e.g. V + gerund -- She enjoys playing (tennis).

V + conjunctive + infinitive -- I know what to do.

V + conjunctive + clause -- I know what he will say.

2.16 Pattern VI

N ¹ (phrase)	Tr V	N ² (phrase)	N ³ (phrase)
The mother	bought	the girl	a dress.
He	sold	the student	a ticket
I	showed	them	how to do it.
They	told	me	that I was early.
	Lend	me	your pen.
He	assigned	Jack	the toughest job.

In Pattern VI each noun has a different referent. The two objects of the verb in Pattern VI are, in order, the indirect and the direct object. The indirect object may often be replaced by a prepositional phrase beginning with *to* or *for*, in which case the order changes to direct object followed by indirect object.

e.g. The mother bought a dress for the girl.

He sold a ticket to the student.

The verbs that can be used in Pattern VI are a restricted group. Some of the common ones are: *buy, give, make, find, tell, write, send, ask, build, play, teach, assign, feed, offer, throw, hand, pass, sell, pay.*

2.17 Pattern VII

N ¹ (phrase)	Tr V	N ² (phrase)	N ³ (phrase)
They	elected	Mr. Gray	chairman.
The players	chose	Harry	captain.
We	consider	him	a fool.
He	labeled	me	a rebel.

In Pattern VII both objects of the verb have the same referent. The first is the direct object, the second the object complement.

Only a very small group of verbs can be used for Pattern VII. Among them are: *name, choose, elect, appoint, designate, select, vote, make, consider, imagine, think, believe, suppose, find, prove, label.*

There are some variations in the fourth position. In the sentences listed above, the first two do not have the article *a* included with the final noun. As well, there are variations in which this position is occupied by forms other than a noun, yet in all cases related to the direct object.

N ¹ (phrase)	Tr V	N ² (phrase)	Adj ² (phrase)
He	considered	her	beautiful
She	painted	the kitchen	yellow.
I	imagined	him	seated.
She	wears	her hair	long.
He	made	his influence	felt.
I	thought	him	upstairs.

2.18 Pattern VIII

N (phrase)	LV (Linking Verb)	Adj.
The acrobat	seems	young.
He	grew	sleepy.
The milk	remained	sweet for a week.
You	look	good today.
He	feels	sorry.

In Pattern VIII the verb is called a linking verb, as it links the adjective with the subject. Any verb except *be* that can be substituted for *seems* in this frame is a linking verb.

Some of the common linking verbs are: *seem, appear, become, grow, remain, taste, look, feel, sound, smell, get*. Note that if verbs like these are followed by an adverbial then the pattern is not VIII but IV.

e.g. Pattern IV: He appeared quickly.
He turned sharply.
etc.

Besides the common linking verbs, other verbs which are not usually thought of as linking may sometimes be followed by an adjective and thus conform to Pattern VIII.

e.g. His face went red.
The well ran dry.

2.19 Pattern IX

N ¹ (phrase)	LV	N ² (phrase)
My brother	became	a doctor.
He	seemed	a good fellow.
They	appeared	friends.
He	remained	a student for reasons of his own.

In Pattern IX both nouns have the same referent, and the verb is a linking verb. The number of linking verbs which can occupy the verbal position in this pattern is very small. Among them are: *remain, become, appear, seem, continue, stay*.

EXERCISES

Exercise I

After each of the following sentences, write the number of the sentence pattern it represents. (Refer to patterns in chapter).

e.g. Your recital was wonderful. (1)
Do you know how to swim? (5)

1. She thought the proposal a mistake.
2. The Romans won the battle.
3. We found her a new costume.
4. Mabel was here a moment ago.
5. He told us a tall tale.

6. The frogs were croaking in the marsh.
7. They designated Joe the new manager.
8. He has always seemed a serious boy.
9. The pickles are in the jar.
10. They stayed roommates for three years.
11. They elected Mr. Warren Chairman of the Committee.
12. I have always found him helpful.
13. He put the book on the table.
14. Do you think that it will rain?
15. She avoids taking the subway.
16. Will you lend me your pen?
17. They went to Europe on their vacation.
18. My cousin is a fool.
19. The physicist grew sleepy.
20. The farmer grew wheat.
21. The flowers grew quickly.

Exercise II

Each of the following sentences is ambiguous because we don't know which of two patterns it represents. Each could be analyzed in two ways. What are the two patterns represented in each? Resolve the ambiguity by paraphrasing each sentence in two ways, or by providing two contexts for each sentence.

e.g. I'm getting her socks.

(a) I'm getting socks for her. (6)

(b) I'm getting the socks that belong to her. (5)

1. He found her a pig. _____

2. The bouncer turned out a drunkard. _____

3. They are discouraging phone calls. _____

4. He accepted Wednesday. _____

5. The doctor made them well. _____
- _____

IMPLICATIONS:

(1) Word Order

Word Order can be difficult for students to master, especially if their first languages have a relatively flexible order and rely more on inflection. It is particularly difficult for students to master the instances of word order which directly contradict their first languages. For example, French students have trouble with the placement of adjectives.

e.g. C'est un livre bleu.
It is a blue book.

If students are made aware of the importance of word order as a signal of meaning, they may be more motivated to remember word positions and some of the difficulty may be eliminated.

(2) Sentence Patterns

Students seem to learn quickly that for a sentence to sound English it must have a subject and a verb (unless it's an imperative, e.g. *Sit down!*). Even if numerous mistakes are made in inflection, function word use, or vocabulary, the message of a sentence may be understood if it retains a correct sentence pattern. Often, once they have control of the first few patterns and find they can be understood even with other errors, students do not acquire control of the other patterns. Sentences based on other patterns will prove very difficult. For example, a sentence that patterns:

N ¹	Tr V	N ²	N ³
She	bought	me	a dress.

may be confusing. The student, basing his understanding of this sentence on the first few patterns only, may think that this sentence has two objects. Tremendous difficulty arises when learners

are confronted with the patterns:

N	V	gerund
She	enjoys	playing.
and		
N	V	infinitive
She	wants	to go.

To many students these sentences appear to have two verbs and no particular reason for using a gerund in one case and an infinitive in the other.

Here again, making students aware of the variety of underlying patterns beyond the first few may help to clear up any confusion.

In her article, "Error Analysis in the Adult EFL Classroom", Marina K. Burt points out that errors in word order or sentence patterns are global. Global errors affect the overall organization of a sentence and can significantly hinder communication. Errors in inflection of function words are local, which means that they affect single elements in a sentence. Although local errors must be overcome if a speaker is to approximate near-native fluency, they rarely affect the communication of a verbal message. Because of the potential for interfering with communication, word order and sentence patterns merit more classroom attention than other factors.

There are many techniques for teaching both word order and sentence patterns.

The most common technique is pattern drilling. The general idea is to have students repetitiously practise producing a sentence or sentences based on one pattern. Usually, a drill begins with the teacher producing one sentence, which the students repeat. Then, different word cues are given. The students repeat the sentence replacing the appropriate words or phrases with the new ones. In this way learners practise correctly producing various patterns or they focus on particularly difficult elements in a pattern. Although many variations of the technique exist, the objective is always that the learner develop subconscious control of the patterns.

Other techniques operate at a cognitive level. Students can be asked to put into sentence order a dis-ordered series of words. Students can be instructed to write in a complete sentence, newspaper headlines which are missing various sentence elements. As well, parallels can be drawn between sentence elements that act similarly.

All these techniques help students learn word order and sentence patterns.

CHAPTER 3

INTRODUCTION

3.0 NOUN PHRASE STRUCTURE

3.1 PREMODIFIERS

3.12 Restricters

3.13 Predeterminers

3.14 Determiners

3.15 Postdeterminers

3.16 Nouns and Adjectives

(1) Adjective Equivalents

(i) Present Participle

(ii) Gerund

(iii) Past Participle

(iv) Adverb

3.2 POSTMODIFIERS

3.21 Word modifiers

3.22 Phrase modifiers

3.23 Relative Clause modifiers

(1) Restrictive and non restrictive

3.24 Appositive modifiers

3.3 THE ARTICLE SYSTEM

3.31 A(n) versus no article

(1) Mass Nouns

(2) Count Nouns

(3) Mass and Count

(4) Massifying or Countifying

3.32 The vs. A(n) vs. no article

3.33 Uses of articles in other languages

3.4 FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN PHRASE

3.41 Alternates to the Noun Phrase

EXERCISES

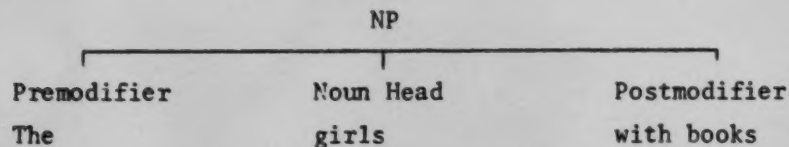
IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Every sentence pattern listed in the previous chapter had at least two elements, a noun phrase and a verb phrase. This chapter will examine the composition of the noun phrase and its grammatical role in a sentence pattern.

3.0 STRUCTURE

The noun phrase is typically composed of a head noun which can be accompanied by one or more modifiers. The modifiers which appear before the noun head are called premodifiers and those that follow it are called postmodifiers. The structure of the noun phrase can be illustrated as:



The modifiers merit more study because of the wide variety of words which can assume this grammatical role and because of the complex system of ordering.

3.1 PREMODIFIERS

The premodifiers include adjectives, nouns, verbals (*following, rented, etc.*) and determiners (*the, his, this, etc.*) The following highly unusual sentence demonstrates some of the possibilities:

Both those next two attractive tall new square pink
American enamel automatic electric laundry machines
are expensive.

Such a long string of premodifiers retards comprehension and therefore rarely appears. Any comprehension of this string depends upon our recognition of all the words preceeding the noun are modifiers and that these words are systematically

ordered. The order of these premodifiers can be crucial in determining meaning. For example, examine the differences in meaning in these two phrases:

any large delivery truck	vs.	any large truck delivery
her first good doghouse	vs.	her first good house dog

The following chart lists the kinds of words which can be used to modify a noun and illustrates the order in which they can appear. Note that in every class, the modifiers are mutually exclusive. That is, we cannot say **The my book*, since *the* and *my* both belong to the same class.

*indicates ungrammatical sentence

PREMODIFIERS

VI Restrictor	V Predeterminer	IV Determiner	III Postdeterminer	II Adjective	I Noun	Noun Head
Especially Even Just Merely Only Particularly	all both half double	<u>A ARTICLES</u> a/an the <u>Possess. Adjs.</u> her his its my our their your <u>Possess. of Names</u> John's <u>Demonstratives</u> this that these those <u>B</u> another any each either enough much neither no some what (a) which	<u>Cardinal Numbers</u> 1, 2, 3, ... 99 <u>Ordinal Numbers</u> first, second, ... last every few less little (quantity) many (a) more most other some several single such (a) <u>Possess. of Common Nouns</u> summer's	<u>Examples</u> red blue green old new young big little (size) large small high low tall short thick thin intellectual dogmatic thoughtful commendable excellent prevalent Japanese Chinese American silken woolen wooden <u>Possess. of Common Nouns</u> summer's	<u>Examples</u> school college dormitory house garden fence garage door gate summer rock wool silk steel iron clay plastic cloth brass copper leather nylon brick cement paper shoe skirt <u>Possess. of Common Nouns</u> woman's	

Types of Premodifiers

3.12 Restricters

This small set of premodifiers - *especially, even, just, merely, only, particularly* - can modify the noun head alone or can occur with other modifiers.

e.g. Just the girls were there. Just a few college girls were there.

He would drink even water. He would drink even the less cold water.

3.13 Predeterminers

This group of words precedes the determiners. It consists of *all, both, half, double*, and a few others.

	V	IV	II	I	NH
	Pred.	D	Adj.	N	
e.g.	all	my	old	school	friends

3.14 Determiners

This class of words, as you will notice, is divided into two sub-classes. Sub-class "A" (often called *The Determiners*) are the fourteen determiners which can all be preceded by the predeterminers.

	V	IV	NH
	Pred.	D	
e.g.	all	the	children
	both	their	children
	half (of)	those	books

(Please see section 3.3 for further discussion on the use of articles)

Sub-class "B" (often called *Another Determiners*) are the twelve determiners which cannot be preceded by predeterminers.

	IV	II	NH
	D	Adj.	
e.g.	another	good	movie
	either	black	pen

The two sub-classes are, of course, mutually exclusive. That is,

Note that no punctuation is used if the modifiers follow one another in the customary order.

e.g. Have you met that brilliant young Spanish philosopher?

If, however, the customary order is changed, a comma is inserted (and juncture in speech).

e.g. The woman gave a low, shuddering reply.

Two modifiers of the same group can be joined by conjunctions or commas (juncture in speech).

e.g. The psychiatrist spoke in a gentle but persuasive voice.

Sarah had a black and blue mark on her arm.

The orchestra played a swaying, enchanting waltz.

(1) Adjective Equivalents

A noun may be modified not only by a regular adjective or a noun (numbers 1 to 10 above) but also by present participles, gerunds, and past participles and adverbs. All of these modifiers occupy the "adjective position" in a sentence.

(i) Present participle

The present participle (a type of verbal) can be used as an adjective. There is primary stress on the head noun. There may be a primary or secondary stress on the participle.

e.g. the coming months
a sleeping child
the following chapter
growing children

(ii) Gerund

The gerund (or verbal noun) can be used as an adjective. It is distinguishable from the present participle in two ways. First, it is inseparable from the noun head, whereas the participle may be separated.

- e.g. a dancing school - gerund
a dancing bear - participle
a dancing, prancing bear - participle

Secondly, the stress is different. There is primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on the following noun.

- e.g. eating apples
walking-stick
swimming race
cooking apples
growing pains

(iii) Past Participle

The past participle (a type of verbal) can be used as an adjective. It is often marked by the same features as an adjective. It has a comparative and a superlative form and may be modified by adverbs. Many participles are also marked by the prefix *un-*.

- e.g. the most distinguished scientist
a pleased look
unarmed troops
undeserved punishment

(iv) Adverbs

Some adverbs can be used to modify nouns. For information on which adverbs can be used this way a dictionary should be consulted.

- e.g. the above statement
the down stroke
the inside story.

For example, *the above statement* is normal usage, but we cannot say **the below statement* and must say instead *the statement below*.

(2) Adjective Position

The position of the adjective before the noun is so normal that altering it achieves a very special effect. One theatre

*indicates ungrammatical sentence

reviewer is renowned for having made this statement about a play entitled "The House Beautiful": "The House Beautiful - the play lousy". Certain phrases in English always follow this peculiar construction. For example, *president elect*, *attorney-general*, *time immemorial*. Note, however, that the prenominal position for adjectives is so prevalent that the plural of *attorney-general* is becoming *attorney-generals*, with the adjective *general* being thought of as the noun to be pluralized.

3.2. POSTMODIFIERS

Postmodifiers occur after the head noun in a noun phrase. The postmodifiers include words (adjectives and adverbials), phrases, relative clauses, and appositives.

- e.g. He had never seen a woman more lovely.
 The bend in the river ...
 The trees that had the mistletoe were half dead.
 Mary Evans, a graduate in journalism, will be the editor.

3.21 Word Modifiers

As we have already noted, most single word modifiers occur before the noun head. But there are some conditions under which the word will come after the noun.

- (a) When the word is not alone but is modified:

e.g. The workers, reasonably satisfied, returned to work.

- (b) When more than one word is used:

e.g. A student, timid and hesitant, asked the question.

- (c) When the modifying word is adverbial, referring to place or time.

e.g. The bicycle outside is mine.

- (d) When a cardinal number is used instead of an ordinal number, it follows the noun.

e.g. Read Chapter Six for tomorrow vs. Read the sixth chapter for tomorrow.

(e) With the compounds of any-, every-, no-, and some-, the adjective follows the head word.

e.g. something old
everywhere possible
nobody else

(f) The words *broad, deep, high, long, old, tall, wide, young,* follow nouns in expressions of measurement.

e.g. a board twenty inches wide
 a trip ten days long

(If the expression of measurement precedes the word it modifies, the noun in the expression does not take a plural ending and the words are hyphenated. For example: a board *twenty inches wide* ---- a *twenty-inch* (-wide) board).

(g) A participle may follow the noun it modifies.

e.g. The boy selected was my brother.
 The girl singing practises daily.

3.22 Phrase Modifiers

A noun may be modified by a following phrase. These are the types of phrases which can follow a noun.

(a) Prepositional phrase

e.g. The bend in the river
 The dress with the white collar

(b) Participial phrase -ing

e.g. There she was, swimming across the stream.
 We watched the sailboat gliding across the bay.

(c) Participial phrase -ed

e.g. The book, printed centuries ago, was beginning to disintegrate.

(d) Infinitive phrase

e.g. I have nothing to do.
 He had a whole wall left to paint.

3.23 Relative Clause Modifiers

A noun may be modified by a relative clause as in the example. It can be introduced by a relative pronoun such as *that, who, whom,*

whose, which or by when, where, why, after, before, etc.

e.g. The movie I saw fascinated me.
The client whose taxes he was handling died.
Tell me the reason why she left.

The relative clause is the most explicit of the postmodifiers. Explicitness diminishes in the participial clauses and prepositional phrases.

e.g. The man who was sitting in the chair
The man sitting in the chair
The man in the chair

(1) Restrictive and Non-restrictive Clauses

Note the difference between the following two clauses:

- a) He walked to the garage which he liked best.
- b) He walked to the garage, which was a mile away.

a) points out one garage out of many. This is a restrictive clause, restricting the meaning to part of the total. Of all the garages, he walked to the particular one that he preferred. In b) there is only one garage, and as additional information we learn that it is a mile away. This is a non-restrictive clause making no limitation.

There are markers in speech and in writing which indicate whether a clause is restrictive or non-restrictive. In speech these two types of clauses are distinguished by their different intonation patterns. When a clause is restrictive the voice goes on smoothly and without change through the noun head and the relative clause.

e.g. The man who teaches in room 42 borrowed your book.

When a clause is non-restrictive there is a break between the noun head and the relative clause.

e.g. John Oliver, who teaches in room 42, borrowed your book.

Other signals, such as pitch, also play a part in distinguishing the two.

In writing, a non-restrictive clause is set off by commas or a comma; a restrictive clause is not set off.

You know that a clause is restrictive if it begins with *that* or no relative at all, if you can substitute *that* for *who*, *whom* or

which, or if whom or which can be omitted.

If the noun head is a personal or geographical name, the clause is usually non-restrictive.

e.g. Compare -

Jane, whom I hadn't seen for a long time, visited me yesterday.

vs.

The girl whom I hadn't seen for a long time visited me yesterday.

3.24 Appositive Modifiers

An appositive is a noun phrase which modifies another noun. The appositive follows the noun it modifies.

e.g. Bob went to see his sister, Jane.

Placing a noun phrase in apposition gives it more independence or significance. For example, note the slight difference between the following:

Queen Elizabeth ...

Elizabeth, Queen of England ...

3.3 THE ARTICLE SYSTEM

Up to now in our discussion of the noun phrase we have been observing what can occur before and after the noun head and in what order these modifiers can occur. We will now focus our attention on a sub-class of the premodifiers, the articles. The two articles are *the* and *a(n)*.

The structural function of articles is as a determiner, a marker of nouns. Articles are different from other determiners in that they cannot stand alone as pronouns.

The semantic function of articles is to mark nouns as *definite* or *indefinite*. When we use *the* we presume that the following noun is in some way identified and is known to both the speaker and hearer.

e.g. Look at the book in your hands.

A(n) is used when the noun is not specified.

e.g. Take a book from the shelf.

Deciding which article to use or whether to use any at all is often difficult for the language learner. There are actually a number of factors, both structural and semantic, which determine the use or non-use of articles. The choices involved in the use of articles will be presented here under two main headings:

a(n)	vs.	no article		
the	vs.	a(n)	vs.	no article

3.31 A(n) vs. no article

We use the indefinite article a(n) with singular count nouns.

e.g. a bottle

We use no article with mass nouns or plural count nouns.

e.g. intelligence, bottles

Since the use of the indefinite article depends on whether the noun is used as a mass noun or as a count noun it is important to understand these concepts.

(1) Mass Nouns

Structurally, a mass noun has no plural. Semantically, a mass noun refers to natural or psychological phenomena; intangibles, or materials too small to be counted.

e.g. gas, bravery, intelligence, sugar

Many of these nouns are used with expressions of quantity. The expressions, structurally, can be pluralized and semantically allow the mass nouns to be measured in some way. The expressions are often unique to the mass noun they accompany.

e.g.	a loaf of bread	-	loaves of bread
	a head of lettuce	-	heads of lettuce
	a bowl of soup	-	bowls of soup

(2) Structurally, count nouns have a singular and a plural form. Semantically they refer to things which can be singled out and counted.

(3) Mass or Count Nouns

There are many nouns which can function either as mass or count nouns. They can bear the characteristics of either category. Often, the meaning of a word as a mass noun can differ from the meaning of the same word as a count noun. In each of the following examples, a word is used first as a count noun and then as a mass noun. Note the changes in meaning.

1. A wine glass is on the table.
The table is made of glass.
2. Before the ceremony, they drank a toast to the Queen.
He has toast for breakfast.
3. He went to work for a new company.
We're having company for dinner.
4. The Mona Lisa is a work of art.
He left early because he had work to do.

Summary

The following chart illustrates the use and non-use of the indefinite article with mass and count nouns:

Type of Noun	Ø	A	Plural
Count	--	a bottle	bottles
Mass	bravery		
Mass with expression of quantity	rice	a bowl of rice	bowls of rice
Mass or count	lemon	a lemon	lemons

(4) Massifying or Countifying a Noun

At first glance it would seem that nouns are intrinsically mass or count. However, often mass nouns can be conceptualized as

count and vice versa. Mass and count seem to be concepts rather than categories limited by inflexible boundaries.

The following examples illustrate count nouns which can act as mass nouns and some mass nouns which can act as count nouns:

- 1) He's got egg all over his face.
She's a lot of woman.
Said one termite to another: "Shelf is better than floor."
- 2) A new beer has come out on the market.
He has an intellect which fascinates me.
Give me a coffee that won't keep me awake at night.
It was a peace imposed by terror alone.
- 3) "What would you like?" "A coffee, please."
 "Two teas, please."

In Number 1 we have examples of nouns which are usually Type 1 count nouns (e.g. *an egg, eggs*). Yet we can, by putting $\emptyset$ instead of a before the singular, create mass forms of these nouns. In the appropriate context, this can probably be done with most count nouns. (Note that the last example of Number 1, though a highly unlikely sentence, is nevertheless understandable.)

Numbers 2 and 3 are examples of mass nouns which have been 'countified'. In Number 2 a *beer, an intellect, a coffee, a peace* denote a kind of _____. In Number 3 a *coffee, two teas* denote a standard portion of _____, depending on the context. (Note the two instances of a *coffee*).

3.32 The vs. A(n) vs. No Article

The definite article *the* is used when the following noun is for some reason known to the speaker and hearer. The following examples illustrate the four circumstances in which such definite meaning arises:

- 1) A man and a woman were sitting in the waiting room.
The man was waiting to see the dentist.

Identity is established by earlier mention in a previous sentence or paragraph.

- 2) The dress which I bought is too large.

Identity is established by information given in the same sentence.

- 3) The sun is overhead at noon.

Identity is established because the noun is the only one that exists or has existed.

- 4) Mother to son: "Please set the table."

Identity is established because the speaker and hearer share prior information or experience.

These four sentences are examples of the use of *the* when it is not bound to any specific vocabulary items or kinds of nouns. Whenever the noun appears to be limited and thus identifiable, *the* is used. Thus when a noun is identified by certain types of modifiers it must be preceded by *the*.

e.g. 1. superlative adjectives

the first boy, the best essay

2. of phrases

the King of England, the behaviour of man.

When *the* indicates that the noun is identifiable, it is not bound to any specific vocabulary item. It is related to the position of the noun in relation to the sentence and the paragraph as a whole and to the situation in which it is used. Used in this way, *the* occurs in almost every sentence we say or write. It is difficult to teach but it is essential.

Some other uses of *the* should be mentioned too. Note, however, that they are related to particular vocabulary items and are therefore not as basic as the four previous ones.

1. *The* is used to designate all the specimens of a species.

The horse has been replaced by the railroad.

Do you prefer the city to the country?

The difference in meaning between *the* and *a* is slight here. *A* is used to designate one member of a class. Note that the following express essentially the same thing:

The lion is a beautiful animal.

A lion is a beautiful animal.

Lions are beautiful animals.

2. *The* is used before plural nouns which designate a group (a collection of people or things).
e.g. the Johnsons, the Rocky Mountains, the Philippines, the Great Lakes.
3. *The* is used with the names of rivers, oceans, deserts, musical instruments, ships, buildings.
e.g. The St. Lawrence River, the Atlantic Ocean, the Sahara, he plays the piano, the Queen Mary, the Toronto-Dominion Centre.
4. *The* is used with the names of languages when the word *language* is also used.
e.g. The English language.
5. *The* is used with names of countries or institutions when an *of* construction is used.
e.g. The University of Toronto, the Republic of China, the United States of America, etc.
6. Certain other names of countries and cities are also preceded by *the*.
e.g. The Hague, the Congo, the Ukraine, the Sudan, etc.

When *not* to use *the*

1. *The* is not used with names of people, places or games.
e.g. Bloor Street, Toronto, Lake Ontario, Canada, Mr. Jones, Mount Everest, English, tennis, High Park.
- Numbers 2 to 6 in the previous list can be considered exceptions to this rule.
2. We speak of a field of study without *the*.
e.g. He is studying medicine (law, biology, etc.).
 3. There are certain nouns in English which can refer either to a place and object or to an activity. When they refer to an activity, *the* is not used.

e.g. activity

I go to bed at 11 o'clock.

He went to school.

Dinner is a good time for
a family to get together.

He shaves before breakfast.

He is at church.

He is in class.

object

Don't sit on the bed.

He knew that the school was far.

The dinner was a bit cold.

The breakfast included eggs,
toast and coffee.

They built the church 100 years
ago.

The class has only one black-
board.

3.33 Uses of articles in other languages.

It is important for you, as teachers of English as a Second Language, to know something about the way the definite and indefinite article and Ø (zero) operate in other languages, so that you will appreciate the difficulties your students will have in transferring into the English article system.

Here are a few examples of contrasts between English and some other languages. You yourselves could probably come up with many other examples of contrasts.

Spanish has Ø where English has a after a linking verb followed by a noun of identification.

e.g. Es profesora.

She's a teacher.

French has the definite article in many places where English has Ø.

e.g. L'homme est mortelle.

Man is mortal.

Les hommes son plus grands
que les femmes.

Men are bigger than women.

Les enfants sont innocents.

Children are innocent.

In French (as well as in many other languages) the definite article is used when referring to parts of the body, whereas in English we use the possessive adjective.

e.g. Il a mis le chapeau sur
la tête.

He put the hat on his head.

(When we say *the head* in English we mean all heads or everyone's head).

Many languages, including the Slavic languages, Hungarian, Finnish, Chinese, Japanese, etc. have no equivalent of the English definite or indefinite article.

e.g. Russian

I see a book

/ya viyžu kniygu/
(lit. I see book)

The book is on the table

/kniyga no stul'/
(lit. book on table)

note too, the absence of
connector "is".

Obviously the use of the indefinite and definite articles is going to be even more of a problem for speakers of these languages than for speakers of languages which do have an indefinite and definite article, however different their system might be from the English system.

3.4 FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN PHRASE

As described previously the basic noun phrase is composed of premodifiers, a noun head and postmodifiers. The noun phrase typically functions as subject, object, complement of sentences and as complement in prepositional phrases.

e.g. The dog is barking.
She brought the dog.
King is the largest dog.
They argued about the dog.

The pronoun, as a sub-class of nouns, can function in the same ways as the noun head.

e.g. He's the largest dog.

3.41 Alternates

Although the N in the sentence patterns listed in chapter two most commonly appears as a noun phrase it can be realized by nominals. A nominal is any structure that functions as a noun. In the following sentences, in the place of a noun phrase, there is a gerund,

an infinitive and a clause.

e.g. Swimming is enjoyable.
She hates to swim.
That you swim well is obvious.

EXERCISES

1. Premodifiers

Exercise I

Read the following lists of prenominal modifiers plus noun and make each group into a meaningful noun cluster.

- (1) blocks, your, cement, half, new
- (2) long, copper, all, wires, the
- (3) engagement, both, lovely, her, rings
- (4) fresh, those, flowers, prairie, all
- (5) summer, several, flowers, pink
- (6) garden, both, old, his, hoes
- (7) two, silk, my, dresses, pretty

e.g. IV III II I NH
 my two pretty silk dresses

In the following list, place above each modifier the number of the class to which it belongs (as indicated in the chart on pg. 3).

Exercise II

Above each modifier in the noun clusters you disentangled in Exercise I, write the number of the class to which it belongs (as indicated in the chart on pg. 3).

e.g. IV II I NH
 any small cloth rag

- (1) another huge glass ornament
- (2) each happy farm duck
- (3) neither tired economic student
- (4) much evening enjoyment
- (5) both my studious room-mates
- (6) either short cotton dress

- (7) some long winter vacations
- (8) enough college friends
- (9) all our friendly neighbourhood dogs
- (10) no cold cheese sandwich

Exercise III

Add determiners to the following to show the ambiguity.

e.g. Ship sails tomorrow - The ship sails tomorrow.
Ship the sails tomorrow.

- (1) Police raid gathering
- (2) Complete faculty at State
- (3) Rule book not obscene
- (4) Clean model house

Exercise IV

Identify the parts of speech of the underlined words used to modify the nouns in the following phrases.

- (1) an old book
- (2) a stone wall
- (3) a man outside
- (4) a crumbling wall
- (5) a person to know
- (6) an inside room
- (7) a very tired dog

2. Postmodifiers

Exercise V

Each of the following sentences has a construction which follows a noun head and modifies it. There are various types of postmodifying constructions. First, underline the postmodifying construction. Then identify its form as being (1) a word modifier, (2) a phrase modifier, (3) a relative clause, or (4) an appositive.

- (1) We watched the muddy river, swollen
with rain.
- (2) Have you ever seen a woman who
loves toads? _____
- (3) The mountain top, high and craggy,
was hidden in a cloud. _____

- (4) I want to rent the bicycle outside.
- (5) The fireworks were a sight to behold.
- (6) The Daily Bugle, a college newspaper, appears daily
- (7) The year after he enlisted was a momentous one.
- (8) The party yesterday was well attended.
- (9) The mailman, exuberantly happy, whistled merrily.
- (10) The majority of the voters appeared satisfied.
- (11) We saw the puppies tugging at the rope.

3. Mass vs. Count

Exercise VI

For each of the following, write sentences which illustrate these nouns used as mass nouns, count nouns or both.

- (1) coke
- (2) man
- (3) sugar
- (4) space
- (5) pen

4. Articles

Exercise VII

In the sentences you wrote in Exercise VI, underline the nouns. Explain why these nouns are preceded by the definite article, the indefinite article or no article.

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Order of Modifiers

The order of the premodifiers, especially the adjectives, can be confusing. There are many techniques which can eliminate this confusion. Unscrambling a series of adjectives can help students recognize the need for order. One popular technique is having students describe a person or thing in one sentence.

(2) Mass vs. Count Nouns

The concepts of mass and count is a most difficult one. Students may quickly understand the structural difference but may take a long time to grasp the semantic difference. Pattern drills, exercises in classifying nouns as either mass or count, and frequent examples are all necessary for students to master these concepts.

(3) Articles

Mastery of the article system hinges on the student's understanding (1) that nouns are marked by articles, (2) that there is a basic difference between definite and indefinite meaning which depends on the text and on the situation and (3) that the mass/count concepts are involved in the use of articles.

Because articles carry very little meaning, students tend to omit them. Making students aware of the significance of articles as markers of nouns may focus their attention a little more closely on articles.

Students often think that concepts of definiteness and indefiniteness are somehow intrinsic to the nouns themselves, rather than being concepts which depend on the text and on the situation. Understanding this and the relationship of articles to mass/count nouns will clarify the article system for the student.

The techniques for overcoming the difficulties are drills, examples, classifying exercises and exercises in which the students fill in blanks with the appropriate article.

CHAPTER 4

4.0 VERB PHRASE

4.1 VERB PATTERNS

- (1) Transitive Verbs
- (2) Intransitive Verbs
- (3) Copula

4.2 GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES

4.21 Tense/Time

- (1) Past Tense
 - (i) definite meaning
 - (ii) hypothetical meaning
 - (iii) reported speech
- (2) Present Tense
 - (i) general time
 - (ii) non action verbs
 - (iii) present event
 - (iv) future time
 - (v) hypothetical meaning and reported speech
- (3) Future Time
 - (i) will/shall
 - (ii) be going
 - (iii) present tense

4.22 Aspect

- (1) Progressive
- (2) Perfective

4.23 Voice

4.3 LEXICAL VERBS

4.31 2-word verbs

- (1) 2-word verbs and objects
- (2) 2-word verbs and adverbs
- (3) 3-word verbs
- (4) multiple meanings
- (5) changing meanings

4.4. AUXILIARY VERBS

4.41 Structural auxiliary verbs

4.42 Modal auxiliary verbs

- (1) Semantic Interpretation
- (2) Syntactic Form

4.5 FINITE VS. NON FINITE

4.6 ADVERBIALS

- (1) Forms
 - (i) adverb phrases
 - (ii) noun phrases
 - (iii) prepositional phrases
 - (iv) finite verb clauses
 - (v) non finite verb clauses
 - (vi) verbless clauses
- (2) Meaning
 - (i) cause/reason
 - (ii) condition
 - (iii) contrast
 - (iv) degree
 - (v) duration
 - (vi) frequency
 - (vii) manner
 - (viii) place
 - (ix) time-when

EXERCISES

IMPLICATIONS

4.0 VERB PHRASE

The verb phrase is central to any sentence. It consists of either a main verb, often called a lexical verb (*walk, run, go, talk, etc.*) or of a main verb with one or more auxiliary verbs (*do, have, can, will*).

The verb phrase is the most complex sentence element because it is governed by so many different syntactic and semantic systems. This chapter will examine these systems under five headings: Verb Patterns, Grammatical Properties, Lexical and Auxiliary Verbs, and Finite vs. Non Finite.

4.1 VERB PATTERNS

The arrangements of the verb patterns are the basic determinants of the sentence patterns. The three basic types of verb patterns are transitive, intransitive and copula.

(1) Transitive Verbs

A transitive verb takes a direct object.

e.g. He is reading a book.

There are a few variations on this pattern. Some transitive verbs take two objects,

e.g. She gave the children presents.

while some transitive verbs take objects and object complements.

e.g. They considered the car too expensive.

(2) Intransitive Verbs

An intransitive verb does not require an object.

e.g. She is walking in the park.

(3) Copula

Copula or linking verbs are verbs which link subjects and subject complements; they cannot be completed by -ly adverbs of manner.

Linking verbs include verbs of perception like *feel, taste, sound, smell* and others like *grow, fall, run, turn*. Linking verbs

either indicate a state:

e.g. sound (surprised) appear (happy)

or indicate a process and a result:

e.g. grow (tired) fall (sick)

Linking verbs are usually completed by adjectives or noun phrases.

e.g. It tastes good.

He remained a bachelor.

Be is the most common copula. It has many characteristics which distinguish it from the other copulas. Questions and negatives are formed differently for *be* than for the other copulas:

e.g. Is he sick?

Does he appear sick?

Be may also be followed by many different types of complements in addition to the adjective or noun phrase complement:

e.g. She is at her desk. (prepositional phrase)

The question is what to do. (noun clause)

The solution is doing the right thing. (gerund phrase)

Because of these unique characteristics *be* is often considered in its own category, separate from the other copula verbs.

4.2 GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES

Verbs are marked for Tense, Aspect and Voice. The Tense and Aspect systems are so related to each other that often they are grouped together, and their meanings in combination are listed as "tense" differences. They will be dealt with separately here and any overlapping in meaning will be noted.

4.21 Tense/Time

Verbs are marked by inflection or by the addition of auxiliary verbs to show the time that an event occurred. English distinguishes three main divisions in time - past, present, and future. The first two have corresponding tenses; the future is realized by the addition of auxiliary verbs.

(1) Past Tense

The past tense is formed by the addition of a past tense morpheme to the simple form of the verb. In regular verbs this morpheme appears as an -ed ending, in all other verbs it appears differently:

e.g. He walks every day. He walked yesterday.
 She gets up every day. She got up yesterday.

The past tense occurs in a variety of contexts. The first two listed below are the most basic.

(i) The past tense generally refers to definite time in the past. This time may be indicated by a past time adverbial within the sentence; by information given in the text; or, by information known from past experience:

e.g. We lived there during the war.
 I left the country in 1945.
 I've been in Canada for two years. I arrived in the spring.
 Did we get any mail?

(ii) The past tense is also used when hypothetical meaning is expressed in conditional sentences or by the verb *wish*.

e.g. If I had a car I would visit her.
 I wish I knew where he was living.

(iii) In sentences in which the main (or reporting) verb is in a past tense, the verb in the following clause is also past:

e.g. He said that he wanted to see you.

Here, it is interesting to note, the past tense may be used to indicate doubt as to whether the original statement is still true. Compare the above example to:

He said that he wants to see you.

Although the past tense is used generally to indicate past time, events in the past may be indicated by other forms. Refer to the section on perfect aspect.

(2) Present Tense

The present tense appears as the simple form of the verb. Only the third person singular form is inflected.

e.g. I) walk)
 You/We/They) walks) to work every day.
 He/She/It) walks)

The present tense is used in a variety of contexts. Most commonly it refers to general time, present time or future time.

(i) The most frequent use of the present tense is to express habitual action or general truth which is referred to here as general time. When used this way, the tense doesn't really indicate a particular time but is used to make a general statement about the action, extending from the past to the present and into the future. The following are all statements of general time.

The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.
 The members of the club play tennis.
 He never smokes in bed.
 I always walk to work.

(ii) The simple present tense indicates present time when it is used with certain non-action verbs or when it is used with a present event. The non-action verbs include linking verbs, verbs of perception and verbs expressing a mental state or condition. The following are all examples of non-action verbs which are used almost exclusively in the present tense to express present time.

She seems happy this morning.
 This soup tastes salty.
 I remember my promise.
 You have a cold.

(iii) A present event begins and ends at the moment of speech. There are few instances of this except for formal declarations and sports events. They are expressed by the present tense.

e.g. I declare the meeting closed.
 He shoots! He scores!

(iv) Future time is often expressed by the present tense with verbs of motion; often, an adverbial marker of time is present.

e.g. He flies to Montreal tomorrow.
 We leave for Vancouver on Sunday.

The present tense is also used in conditional clauses and reported speech.

e.g. If it rains, I'll take my umbrella.
 He said that he wants to see you.

The first example uses the present tense to refer to future time. The second example uses present to imply that the statement is still true.

(3) Future

There is no future tense that corresponds to the concept of future time in the same way as there are tenses for present and past time. However, there are three ways of expressing future time.

(i) The modal auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall* are used to indicate future time in sentences expressing predictions, intentions, or conditional ideas. This "future" construction consists of the modal and the infinitive (without *to*).

e.g. The election will be this fall.
If I miss the bus, I'll take a taxi.

(ii) *Be + going + infinitive* is another construction often used to express future time.

I think I'm going to faint.
He's going to be a fireman when he grows up.

(iii) The simple present tense and the present progressive can both indicate future time. An adverbial is usually present.

e.g. School begins on September 6.
We're having stew for dinner tonight.

4.22 Aspect

The tense system signals the time an event took place. Aspect indicates the manner in which an action was experienced or regarded. For example, aspect can indicate that an action is repeated in time, or that it is in progress. There are two marked aspects, the progressive and the perfect.

(1) The progressive aspect refers to an activity in progress in present or past time. It may suggest that the action is of limited duration and may not be completed. The progressive aspect construction is *be + verb + -ing*.

e.g. He's jogging in the gym. (action in progress not completed)
He was writing that report for months. (action may not be completed)
I've been meaning to talk to you about the problem. (action not completed).

(2) The perfective aspect may also occur with present and past tenses.

The present perfect can suggest a variety of meanings. Most often it implies that an action occurred at some indefinite time in the past or that an action began in the past, continued to the present and is not yet completed.

e.g. You have read at least half of this book.
You have read many books this year.

This latter use is often expressed by the simple past tense. Note that aside from implications of formality, the following differ little in meaning:

Have you eaten yet?
Did you eat yet?

The present perfect is also used for past events that have present results. The past action usually immediately precedes the time of speaking.

e.g. The taxi has arrived.

This result may also be achieved by the simple past.

e.g. The taxi just arrived.

The past perfect (simple or progressive) indicates that in the past, one action preceded another.

e.g. I had eaten a big meal, so I walked home.

4.23 Voice

Certain constructions in a sentence can indicate whether the subject in a sentence performed or directed the action, or whether the subject received the action. In the first case, the verb is active; in the second, it is passive.

e.g. He stole the jewels. (active)
He was arrested by the policemen. (passive)
He was sent to jail. (passive)

The passive construction, be (present or past tense) + past participle, can be used without an agent (a subject who performs or directs the action) as in the third example.

The passive can be just a stylistic variation of the active, equivalent in meaning: however, in certain situations the passive form is more appropriate. For example, the passive is common in the formal, impersonal language used in notices, business letters, reports, etc.

e.g. Smoking is prohibited by law.
 Please be advised that ...
 This study is intended to ...

Often the passive is used informally when the agent of the action is unknown, or we don't want to say who the subject is.

e.g. The jewels were stolen.

The passive also allows a speaker or writer to add end-weight or end-focus in a sentence. End-weight refers to the tendency to reserve the final position for the more complex parts of a clause or sentence. End-focus refers to the tendency to place new information towards the end of a clause.

e.g. The company was built up by the father, his son and a variety of cousins.

4.3 LEXICAL VERBS

In any verb phrase, the lexical verb carries the main semantic content. The verb may be a single word, a 2-word unit, or even a 3-word unit.

e.g. John threw the ball.
 John called off the game.
 John caught up on his work.

(1) 2-word verbs

2-word verbs are very common in English. They are difficult for second language learners because of structural and semantic features.

A 2-word verb is a construction consisting of a verb followed by a function word that may also function as a preposition. This structure appears to be similar to a verb used with a prepositional phrase; the similarity can confuse students. For example, compare the following:

Verb + Prepositional Phrase

The boys ran into the street.

We looked up the street, but saw no one.

I waited on the corner for an hour.

2-Word Verb

Mr. Brown ran into an old friend yesterday. (met by accident)

She looked up the word because she didn't understand it. (sought in a reference book)

The manager waited on us because the waiters were all busy. (served)

A 2-word verb is a semantic unit with a meaning which is often different from the sum of the meanings of its separate parts, whereas in a Verb + Prep. Phrase construction, each part adds to the whole meaning. What is more, in a Verb + Prep. Phrase, another preposition can often be used in place of the existing one, thereby changing the meaning slightly but retaining the meaning of the verb.

V + Prep. Phrase

e.g. We looked up the street.
 down
 out on
 over the mountain
 under the table

2-Word Verb

She looked up the word.
(sought in a reference book - no relation to
separate meaning of up)

For the sentences containing a verb + prep. phrase construction you can compose a question with *where* and get a meaningful answer. With the 2-word verb sentences, the question *where* produces no meaningful response, whereas a *what* or *whom* question does.

e.g. Where did the boys run? _____ up the street
Where did Mr. Brown run? _____ into an old friend
(not meaningful)

BUT

Whom did Mr. Brown run into? _____ an old friend
What did Sally look up? _____ a word

(i) 2-word verbs and objects

2-word verbs function as single units in meaning and also in construction. Like ordinary verbs, some 2-word verbs are transitive and others are intransitive.

Transitive 2-word verbs need study because the object can be positioned differently. In some 2-word verbs, called separable, the object can come between the two parts or it may follow them. A pronoun object must come between the parts. If an object is very long, we avoid putting it between the two parts.

e.g. I picked the tie out myself
I picked out the tie myself
I picked it out myself (pronoun object)
I picked out the tie I had on last night (long object)

Other 2-word verbs that are separable include *call up* (telephone), *call off* (cancel), *look over* (investigate), *try out* (test), *take up* (study a subject), *find out* (discover), and *have on* (be dressed in).

Inseparable 2-word verbs are transitive, but cannot be separated by the object, whether it is a noun or a pronoun. Here are some examples:

I <u>ran into</u> her yesterday.	(meet)
They're <u>looking into</u> it now.	(investigate)
You can <u>get on</u> it at the corner.	(board)

care for	-	(like, guard, supervise)
wait on	-	(serve)
get in	-	(enter a vehicle, enclosed space)
look for	-	(seek)
see about	-	(consider, arrange)
take after	-	(resemble)
get through	-	(finish)

Many of the intransitive, inseparable verbs (*lie down*) are scarcely distinguishable from the verb adverb sequence (*go away*).

Like ordinary verbs, some 2-word verbs can be either transitive or intransitive. Usually the meaning is the same.

e.g. I wake up at 8 o'clock.
I wake the children up.

Usually these verbs, when they do have objects, are separable. Other examples of these verbs are:

quiet down	-	(be quiet, cause to be quiet)
work out	-	(be successful, solve)
slow down	-	(go more slowly, cause to go more slowly)

Observe the following 2-word verbs. They can all occur either with objects or without. But the meanings differ.

	<u>meaning with object</u>	<u>meaning without object</u>
break up	disrupt	go into fit of laughter
give up	surrender (something)	surrender, fail to finish
pass out	distribute	become unconscious
turn in	submit, deliver	go to bed.

(ii) 2-word verbs and adverbs

Strangely enough, it is the inseparable 2-word verbs that can be separated by an adverbial modifier (i.e. they are therefore inseparable only as far as a direct object is concerned).

e.g. The children laughed at the clown.
They laughed heartily at the clown.

Separable 2-word verbs, on the other hand, are never separated by an adverbial modifier.

e.g. I found out the answer quickly

OR

I quickly found out the answer

BUT NEVER

*I found quickly out the answer

(iii) 3-word verbs

There are many such 2-word verbs which can be followed by noun objects, only if a third word, a preposition, is added to them. These 3-word verbs are inseparable. Here are some more examples. Obviously, those 2 and 3-word verbs which are related should be taught at the same time.

without object

Look out! a car is coming.

They checked out this morning.

Hurry. He's catching up.

He always waits up till I come home.

with object

Look out for the car.
Look out of the window.

They checked out of the hotel.

He's catching up to us.

Don't wait up for me.

But other 3-word verbs don't seem to be built on 2-word equivalents.

e.g. come down with - (become ill with)
come out with - (utter, produce)

are not related to *come down* and *come out* in their usual sense.

The same is true for *live up to* and *put up with*.

(iv) Multiple Meanings

Like ordinary verbs, 2-word verbs can have more than one meaning. Compare the meanings of *pass on* in each of the following. Note that the first example is transitive and the second intransitive.

transitive - Did they pass on the information to the newspaper? (transmit)

intransitive - She passed on last night. (died)

verb - prep. - Our cars passed on the highway.
phrase

There are even further complications with some 2-word verbs.

Make up, for example, has a couple of usages (separable transitive, inseparable intransitive) and a variety of meanings for each usage.

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---|
| e.g. separable | - | He <u>made up</u> a story for the children. |
| transitive | | She <u>couldn't</u> even <u>make one up</u> .
(invent) |
| | - | I haven't <u>made</u> the list <u>up</u> yet.
(composed, written) |
| | - | He'll be able to <u>make</u> the exam <u>up</u>
in August.
(complete what was missed) |
| | - | She <u>made</u> her face <u>up</u> before she went
out <u>in</u> the morning.
(applied cosmetics) |
| inseparable | - | They kissed and <u>made up</u> .
(became reconciled) |
| intransitive | | |

Changing Meanings or Fads

The list of 2-word verbs in English is very long. Learning them is primarily a vocabulary problem, but as we have noted here, the presentation of 2-word verbs in groups which are structurally similar (separable, inseparable with and without objects, families, etc.) can be helpful.

There is one problem which a teacher will always face when it comes to these idiomatic verbs. That is the problem of new combinations and new meanings to old combinations. During any given period of time you might hear dozens of new 2-word combinations e.g. *Are you putting me on?* - (deceiving or trying to trick me) or new meanings attached to old combinations.

e.g. *That music turns me on.* - (excites me)

There are ways of knowing whether or not to introduce such new verbs or new meanings to your class. Some may prove to be only passing fads. Others may become part of the permanent vocabulary of English. You must, of course, go on your own judgement, trying to present your students with those which are well-established in the language. (This does not mean that they must be formal or literary. If they are commonly used informal speech, they are necessary). Often you

will find that your students themselves have come across expressions which are in vogue at the moment. You can't ignore such expressions.

4.40 Auxiliary Verbs

The first part of a verb phrase is often an auxiliary verb or verbs. The auxiliary verb adds meaning to the lexical verb.

4.41 Structural - Auxiliary Verbs

Verbs like *do*, *have*, *be* are auxiliary verbs which can mark differences in tense, voice and aspect or can signal questions or negatives. Accompanying changes in the lexical verb are often necessary to mark voice and aspect.

- e.g. Does he like chocolate? (initial *do* signals a question)
 He didn't eat his dinner. (*do* signals tense and bears the suffix *n't*)
 I haven't seen him. (*have* signals tense and indicates perfect aspect)
 She's studying for an exam. (*be* signals tense and indicates progressive aspect)

4.42 Modal auxiliaries

(1) Semantic interpretation

Modal auxiliaries can signal different types of meaning.

The most common interpretation of modals could be termed ideational, meaning that the speaker is concerned with the external conditions that affect some state or event. Here are some examples with accompanying paraphrases and the semantic labels usually assigned.

<u>Modal</u>	<u>Paraphrase</u>	<u>Label</u>
You should tell me.	You are supposed to tell me.	advisability
You may tell me.	You are allowed to tell me.	permission
You can tell me.	You are able to tell me.	ability
You must tell me.	You are obliged to tell me.	obligation

When used this way, the modals can be inflected for time.

- e.g. He won't tell me now. vs. He wouldn't tell me yesterday.
 I can speak French now. vs. I couldn't speak French then.

Also when negation is expressed, it usually affects the meaning of the modal verb rather than the meaning of the lexical verb.

e.g. He mustn't come.

There is a second interpretation of the modals. A speaker can use the modal verbs to express his personal attitude to a hypothesis. For example, imagine he is one of two people in an art gallery standing in front of a portrait; neither knows the name of the painter, but he thinks it is by Picasso. He could of course say "I think it's by Picasso", but he can also use modal auxiliaries or adverbs to express his personal attitude to the hypothesis:

It may be by Picasso:	Possibly it's by Picasso.
It might be by Picasso:	Perhaps it's by Picasso
It must be by Picasso:	Surely it's by Picasso.
It will be by Picasso:	Probably (predictably) it's by Picasso.
It could be by Picasso, but:	Doubtfully it's by Picasso
It can't be by Picasso	Obviously it isn't by Picasso.
It would be by Picasso:	Presumably it isn't by Picasso.

It is difficult, and not really necessary, to try to find an exact match between modal and adverb. The point is that either may be used to express a probability assessment. Depending on which form is used, the listener will know how much faith he is expected to place in the speaker's judgement. That is why these uses are called interpersonal. Note that the so-called "future tense" in English is now seen as simply one particular degree of probability assessment - so probable that it is predictable. *It will rain tomorrow* can thus be quite accurately paraphrased: *Rain is predicted for tomorrow.*

There are other ways of conveying the same kind of speaker's comment on his own attitude to his thoughts:

It's (possible) that it's by Picasso.
 (certain)
 (obvious)

There's a possibility that it's by Picasso.
 I'm certain that it's by Picasso.

And as these examples show, the syntactic range of expressions varies according to the degree of probability, though the selection of modals covers all degrees.

(2) Syntactic form

The modals have the following structural characteristics, regardless of semantic interpretation.

- (i) they do not take the 3rd person singular inflection -s.
(*he mays come)
- (ii) they may be followed immediately by not/n't.
(*he doesn't may come)
- (iii) they are mutually exclusive.
(*he may must come)
- (iv) they are followed by the base form of the verb, without to.
(*he may to come)

*indicates unacceptable form.

The only forms which fully have all these characteristics are *will/would, may/might, can/could, shall/should, must, need, dare* (though *dare* occurs with *would* in such expressions as *he wouldn't dare do it*).

Other candidates for admission to the class:

- a) ought to --- has all characteristics except iv.
- b) be to --- has all characteristics except i and iv
- c) have (got to) --- has all characteristics except i and iv.

Note that *have to* meets none of the criteria; it can even re-occur with other modals:

he (will) have to testify.
(may)
(might)
(would)

Largely because of its semantic similarity to *must* it is sometimes called a semi-modal, but there is little formal justification for such a term.

The modals can be marked by the past tense morpheme but the addition of this morpheme does not always indicate past time.

For *can/could* (meaning *is/was be able* and *will/would* (meaning *is willing was willing*), the past morpheme indicates past time.

In many cases, the past morpheme indicates greater politeness.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| e.g. Can you tell me | Could you tell me |
| May I suggest ... | Might I suggest |
| Will you please | Would you please |
| Shall I tell him | Should I tell him |
| I may come. | I might come. |

In the case of shall/should the past morpheme indicates advisability, whereas the simple form indicates future intention.

- a.d. You should do your homework. (advisability)
I shall do my homework tonight. (future intention)

The past morpheme also appears when speech is reported.

Direct

Reported

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|
| I may come. | He said he might come. |
| I can come. | He said he could come. |
| I will come. | He said he would come. |
| Shall I come? | He asked if he should come. |

4.5 FINITE VS. NON FINITE

The finite and non finite form refers to the function that a verb has in a sentence.

A finite verb is a lexical verb with or without auxiliaries that acts as a full verb. It is marked by all the grammatical properties a verb may have - person, number, tense, voice, etc.

Non finite verbs are incomplete verb forms that act as parts of speech other than verbs. They consist of the infinitive (to + the simple form of the verb) and the participle (-ing or -ed forms).

Finite

Non finite

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| e.g. He <u>is talking</u> . | The boy <u>talking</u> to my teacher is my brother. |
| | He likes <u>to talk</u> . |

The non finite forms can be marked for voice and tense although not for person and number.

4.6 ADVERBIALS

The verb phrase is often modified by an adverbial. The adverbial adds meaning to the sentence, often clarifying the time, the place or the manner of the action.

(1) Forms

The adverbial can be realized in a variety of forms. These include:

(i) Adverb phrases

e.g. He will play as soon as possible.

(ii) Noun phrases

Peter was playing last week.

(iii) Prepositional phrases

Peter was playing with great skill.

(iv) Finite verb clauses

Peter was playing although he was very tired.

(v) Non finite verb clauses

Wishing to encourage him, they praised Tom.

(vi) Verbless clauses

Peter was playing, unaware of the danger.

(2) Meaning

Adverbials express a variety of concepts. Often a concept can be realized by more than one adverbial form, although the adverbial clause and the prepositional phrase are the most common forms used. The following examples illustrate the variety of concepts and the range of appropriate adverbial forms.

(i) Cause/Reason

The adverbial can indicate the cause of an action or event.

e.g. She got the job because of her experience. (prep. phrase)
She got the job because she knew the director well.
(advb. clause)

(ii) Condition

The adverbial can indicate that one event (expressed in a main clause) depends on the realization of another (expressed in a conditional clause). The speaker/writer can indicate to what degree the

condition is possible or likely to be fulfilled.

e.g. If you are hungry, I'll make you a sandwich.

(The condition is possible, but the speaker doesn't know whether it will be fulfilled).

If you were hungry, I'd make you a sandwich.

(The condition is unreal, and the speaker doesn't think it will be fulfilled.)

If you had been hungry, I would have made you a sandwich.

(The condition was not fulfilled and is hypothetical.)

(iii) Contrast

An adverbial can indicate that two events are in contrast and usually that one is surprising or unexpected in view of the other.

e.g. Although he hadn't attended any classes, he passed the course.
(advb. clause).

(iv) Degree

An adverbial can heighten or lower the effect of a word in a clause.

e.g. I like him very much. (advb. phrase)
Write as much as you can. (clause)
He's definitely going to quit. (advb.)

(v) Duration

An adverbial can indicate a length of time or a duration from some preceding point of time.

e.g. I'll be in Vancouver for the summer. (prep. phrase)
I've worked here since 1970. (advb. phrase)

(vi) Frequency

An adverbial can indicate how many times or how often an event took place. There are many adverbs which express this idea and they are best illustrated on a scale of frequency.

(most frequent)	always
	nearly always, almost always
	usually, generally
	often, frequently
	sometimes
	occasionally
	rarely, seldom
	hardly ever
(least frequent)	never

(vii) Manner

An adverbial can indicate how an action is performed or how it takes place.

- e.g. He acted - quickly. (advb.)
- in a confident manner. (prep. phrase)
- as if he owned the place. (clause)

(viii) Place

An adverbial can indicate where an action is performed or took place.

- e.g. I found my bicycle - outside. (advb.)
- in the street. (prep. phrase)
- two miles away. (noun phrase)
- where I left it. (advb. clause)

(ix) Time - when

An adverbial can indicate when an action took place.

- e.g. Susan went to the movies - yesterday. (advb.)
- on Sunday. (prep. phrase)
- last week. (noun phrase)
- whenever she was upset. (advb. clause)

EXERCISES

Tense and Aspect

(1) Beside each of the following sentences, indicate the reason for the past tense.

1. I went to Europe in 1968. _____
2. What did you say your name was? _____
3. I wish John had your patience. _____
4. Did you sleep well? _____
5. Napoleon marched to Moscow. _____
6. She studied music while she was in Paris. _____
7. He told me that he didn't like Chinese food because it never satisfied his hunger. _____

8. If he came as early as that, he wouldn't find me awake. _____
9. It's time they were in bed. _____
10. If only he were here. _____

(2) Beside each of the following, indicate the reason for the present tense.

1. He takes the bus to work. _____
2. We live just north of Bloor Street. _____
3. He says he'll marry her. _____
4. I know I'm right. _____
5. The train arrives at midnight. _____
6. Something smells sour. _____
7. My mother says I can't go. _____
8. If I do my homework, I can go. _____

(3) Write three sentences using the verb leave. Each sentence should indicate future time by using a different verb phrase.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

(4) These sentences contain some of the common errors made by non-native speakers in the use of the simple past, present perfect, simple present and present continuous tenses.

Change the form of the verb to make each sentence acceptable and point out the grammar rule violated in each case. Could you suggest a reason why a foreign student would make such errors?

1. I am here since 1965. _____
2. Have you fought in World War II? _____

3. They lived there since 1935. _____

4. I am studying English for three years now. _____

5. I have visited the United States when I was a child. _____

2-word verbs

(5) Classify the verb units in these sentences as:

- (a) separable 2-word verb
 (b) inseparable 2-word verb
 (c) Verb + preposition

1. He refused to speak to that boy.
2. He lives on the mountain.
3. What will they live on?
4. We shouldn't think about that now.
5. She has already turned on the light.
6. They waited impatiently for him.
7. They quickly called off the appointment.

(6) In the following sentences, complete the 3-word verbs so that they approximate the meanings of the verbs on the left.

- e.g. continue Please go on with your lecture.
1. anticipate Most people look _____ their vacation.
 2. share I've lost my book. May I _____ you?
 3. be careful Look _____ poison ivy.
 4. respect We should be able to look _____ our leaders.
 5. remember He looks _____ his childhood with nostalgia.
 6. feel superior Why do some people insist on looking _____ others.

(7) Complete the following sentences by supplying the third word in the 3-word phrase:

1. It is difficult to catch up _____ the fastest runner.
2. Have you decided to go on _____ your studies?
3. Charles got by _____ the least amount of work possible.
4. The guard decided to check up _____ the prisoners.
5. You should always look out _____ the traffic.
6. The substitute is filling in _____ the regular teacher.
7. He wants to drop out _____ school.
8. He ran away _____ home.
9. Do your friends drop in _____ you without notice?
10. She always talks back _____ him.

Modals

(8) Using the verb write, write sentences expressing the following concepts:

1. (ability) _____

2. (obligation) _____

3. (permission) _____

4. (improbability) _____

5. (possibility) _____

(9) Paraphrase the following sentences. Do not use the modal verbs in your paraphrases:

1. You can't be serious! _____
2. You must come to the party. _____

3. The pendant may be real. _____
4. (doorbell rings) That will be Mark. _____
5. He might be on time. _____

Finite vs. Non Finite

(10) Using the verb *sell*, write three sentences, one using *sell* as a finite verb and two using non finite forms of the verb.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Adverbials

(11) In each of the following, underline the adverbial and indicate the concept it expresses.

1. We took the family to the beach. _____
2. He went straight out. _____
3. Because of the rain, we took the car. _____
4. He never eats lunch. _____
5. He was on duty all night long. _____
6. I'll come if I have time. _____
7. We'll see you next week. _____
8. She's very thin but she never diets. _____
9. He succeeded by working hard. _____
10. She left with dignity. _____

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Tense

The English tense system is complicated. It is difficult to understand the meaning of the tenses, to learn the form of the tenses,

and to master the relationships between time and tense. It is confusing to find that often time can be realized by more than tense and that a tense can express more than one time. There are a number of ways to ease the learning of the time/tense relationships.

The manner of presentation can help clarify the meaning. First, the order should be carefully sequenced. For beginners, perhaps only the most common expression of present, future and past time should be taught for production, the less common should be taught for comprehension and the least common might be delayed. At later stages, the teacher might, for example, present the future with all the possible forms of expression. A lesson might focus on a conversation in which there appears a variety of forms, all referring to the same time. Presenting a tense with all its possible time references might work at advanced levels, but would probably confuse students at earlier levels.

Secondly, the verb phrase should always be presented within the context of a conversation, a setting or a paragraph. Without contextual clues it is often difficult to understand the time references of the tenses. For example, not the difference context makes in the following:

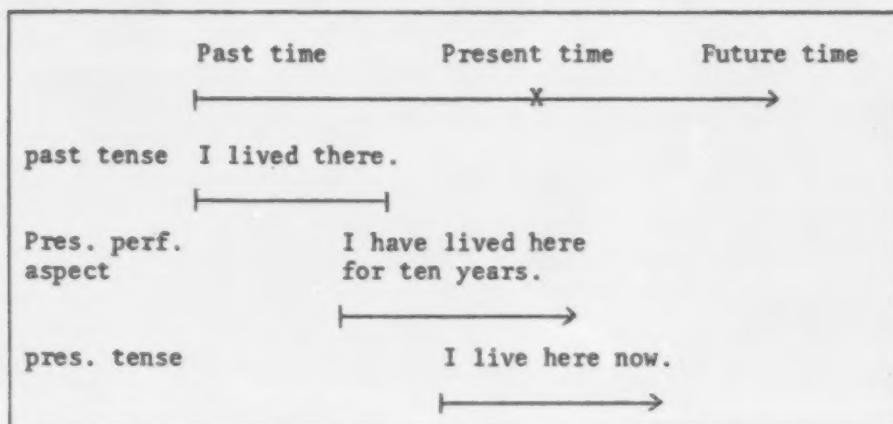
- (i) I cut myself with a knife. (out of context)
- (ii) What happened to your hand?
I cut myself with a knife. (in context - past time)
- (iii) What do you do in scene II?
I cut myself with a knife. (in context - present time)

Thirdly, tenses should not be presented in isolation from other tenses. A paragraph, or conversation which occurs in one tense exclusively is rare in English and should not be presented to students as if it were typical of daily usage. As well, it is often only when students try to use the tenses in relation to one another that difficulties arise - difficulties which were easily avoided in contexts where only one tense was necessary and form, not comprehension, was the issue.

Other aids to teaching the meaning of the tenses include:

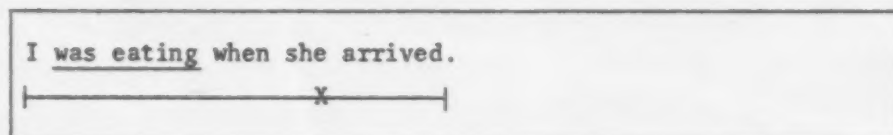
(i) diagrams showing time/tense/aspect relationships.

e.g.



(ii) symbols showing time/tense/aspect relationships.

e.g.



(iii) illustrations using classroom events.

e.g. Bob was late yesterday.

Jane is chewing gum.

Bob has just come in.

You have been in this room for one hour.

The second major problem for students is production of the correct form of the verb phrase. Learners acquire correct forms in gradual stages. Often they need a lot of time and much varied exposure before they acquire certain forms. To the frustration of many teachers, perfect production will occur in drill situations rapidly, but will not characterize the learners' "free" speech for some time. Drills focussing on form, and continued emphasis on the idea that correct form clarifies meaning, (e.g. the present tense -s is essential because it distinguishes a singular verb from a plural) can help overcome many difficulties.

(2) Aspect

Progressive and perfective aspect are complex in concept and form. Often they are not represented in a student's first language. The suggestions made for teaching the time/tense system are equally applicable to the time/tense/aspect relationships.

(3) Voice

Because the passive is common in formal, impersonal English, it would be advisable to teach the construction to any class of learners who will be dealing with this type of language. This would include classes in business English, writing skills, study skills, etc.

(4) 2-word verbs

2-word verbs can be dealt with as they come up in reading or classroom conversation. Alternatively, they can be focussed on in lessons set aside for this purpose. Grouping the verbs by similar meaning might aid the learning of these verbs.

- e.g. (brush off
(rinse off
(wash off - (off referring to
(wipe off the surface of)
(clean off
(dust off
- (come over
(go over
(stay over - (over implying
(walk over a destination)
(fly over
(drop over
- (clean up
(drink up
(add up
(chew up - (up meaning completely
(burn up or thoroughly)
(eat up
(fill up
(light up
(write up

(5) Modals

The modals should be taught in the contexts in which they are likely to occur frequently - discussions of probable events, discussions of obligatory actions, etc. Grouping modals according to the expression of the same meaning is often helpful.

(6) Adverbials

The importance of adverbials lies in their ability to modify the action or event in the sentence. For example, adverbials dealing with time-when are often the major clues to the time of the action.

e.g. He's arriving right now. (present time)
He's arriving tonight. (future time)

Students should learn that the time is often indicated by the adverbial as much as by the verb.

CHAPTER 5

INTRODUCTION

5.0 COORDINATION AND SUBORDINATION

5.1 SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS

5.2 LINKED UNITS

5.3 OTHER FORMS OF LINKING

EXERCISES

IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have all focussed on units of grammar at the simple sentence level. Chapter two examined the smallest units of grammar, the parts of speech. Chapter three showed that sentences can be described according to various patterns, each consisting of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. The following two chapters dealt with the structure and modification of noun phrases and verb phrases. Up to this point units of grammar smaller than or at the simple sentence level have been examined as single instances. Yet sentences often consist of more than one instance of a unit; sentences may contain two or more clauses, two or more phrases or two or more adjectives. Multiple units occurring in one sentence can be linked by coordination, subordination, adverbials or by punctuation marks. This chapter will focus on the various ways of linking grammatical units and the semantic implications.

5.0 COORDINATION AND SUBORDINATION

Both coordination and subordination involve the linking of units. The units can be coordinated by the coordinating conjunctions (coordinators) *and*, *or*, *but*, or one unit can be subordinated to another using subordinating conjunctions (subordinators) like *when*, *if*, *because*.

Semantically, often the same relationship can be expressed by either linking process. For example, the following two sentences essentially express the same idea.

She tried hard, but she failed. (coordination)

Although she tried hard, she failed. (subordination)

Despite certain similarities, there are reasons for choosing one process over the other. Coordination is a somewhat 'looser' connection, because it is more vague and less emphatic. For example, *and* can generally make a positive link between any two ideas that have something sufficiently in common to be connected. Subordination renders one clause in a sentence less important than another. Often the known information is subordinated to the new information in a sentence.

e.g. Susan will arrive tonight.

When she arrives, I'll pick her up.

There is also a difference between the use of coordination and subordination in speech and in writing. Speech is generally characterized by coordinated linking. Writing, being more formal, is usually characterized by subordination and combinations of subordination and coordination.

5.1 SEMANTIC IMPLICATIONS

Basically, the coordinating conjunctions express the following semantic relationships:

and denotes the addition of two units:

e.g. Please clear the table *and* wash the dishes.

or denotes an alternative:

e.g. I'll eat at home *or* I'll stop at a restaurant.

but denotes contrast.

e.g. I'll edit the article but I won't write it.

In addition to these relationships, coordinators can link ideas in other ways. The following examples demonstrate the notions that can be expressed by coordinators (c) and also show how subordinators (s) can be used to achieve the same ends.

1. time - when

- (c) She followed the recipe closely and put the cake in the oven.
- (s) After following the recipe closely, she put the cake in the oven.

2. cause, reason, result

- (c) It started to rain and I had to take my umbrella.
- (s) Because it started to rain, I had to take my umbrella.

3. condition

- (c) Take an umbrella and you won't get wet.
- (c) Take an umbrella or you'll get wet.
- (s) If you take an umbrella, you won't get wet.

5.2 LINKED UNITS

As indicated in the introduction to this chapter, clauses are not the only grammatical units that can be linked by coordinators. Note the following examples.

1. Parts of Speech

He likes apples and oranges. (two nouns)

2. Phrases

He walked out the door and down the steps. (two prepositional phrases)

3. Dependent clauses

Whenever guests drop in or my family visits, I run out of coffee.

4. Independent clauses

She cleans thoroughly but she won't do windows.

5.3 OTHER FORMS OF LINKING

Clauses can be linked by adverbials and by punctuation marks.

Adverbial links can express many of the same relationships as coordinators and subordinators. Within a single sentence they may be used to add emphasis to a link formed by a coordinator or they may be used with a semicolon. They may also be used to establish the relationship between two sentences which may each contain coordinated or subordinated clauses.

1. Take some aspirin and then you'll feel better.
2. There were many problems involved; therefore, the Prime Minister decided to deal with the issue personally.
3. She had rewritten the draft because there were so many errors. However, rewriting took so much time, she was unable to meet her deadline.

Semicolons are punctuation marks that can be used to link two independent clauses.

e.g. People make history; unusual people make history interesting.

This device appears most often in formal written communication.

EXERCISES

In each of the following, two sentences have been given. Link each pair in as many ways as possible. State what idea is expressed with each combination.

1. She prepared the meal personally. He ate everything.
2. He studied for the exam. He barely passed.
3. She's very ambitious. She works hard.
4. Give me some money. I'll help you escape.

IMPLICATIONS

(1) In oral communication classes, focussing on how to link different grammatical units can afford students extra practice with structures that have already been introduced, but not mastered. For example, students could get further practice with the simple present while focussing on linking clauses. Drills on linking clauses could also help students master the relationship

between tense and aspect.

e.g. From the following cues, form appropriate sentences.

1. Bob/work/factory
His wife/teach/kindergarten

answer: Bob works in a factory and his wife teaches kindergarten.

2. The secretary/usually answer/the phone
she/typing now

answer: The secretary usually answers the phone but she's typing now.

Drills of this type allow the learner to produce more sophisticated sentences while using basic structures, like the simple present or the simple past.

(2) In written communication classes, exercises in linking units of grammar not only afford extra practice with structure, but are also necessary if students are to write with any stylistic variation. Even a short paragraph becomes more interesting if it consists of more than one kind of sentence.

Combining units often creates a problem in writing that seldom is noticed in speech. Coordinated units must have parallel forms.

e.g. He likes hunting but not fishing.

not *He likes hunting but not to fish.

Learning that equivalent forms are necessary for balance, or realizing that a sentence with coordinated units is derived from two separate sentences might help students overcome this problem.

(3) It is also important to note that subordinating devices common in writing are infrequent in conversation. In other cases, the learner is merely transferring what he already knows from the spoken form to the written. However, the learner attempting to master subordination and combinations of subordination and coordination may be facing linking structures that are quite new.

*indicates ungrammatical sentence

CHAPTER 6

INTRODUCTION

6.0 AFFIRMATIVE STATEMENTS

6.1 NEGATIVE STATEMENTS

6.11 Negative with not/n't

6.12 Negative with adverbs or pronouns

6.2 QUESTIONS

6.21 Yes/No Questions

6.22 Wh- Questions

6.23 Tag Questions

6.3 COMMANDS

6.4 *IT* AS SUBJECT

6.5 *THERE* AS SUBJECT

6.6 EMBEDDED SENTENCES

6.61 Infinitive Complements

6.62 Restrictive Relative Clauses

6.63 Noun Phrase Complements

EXERCISES

IMPLICATIONS

(1) Negatives

(2) Questions

(3) Tag Questions

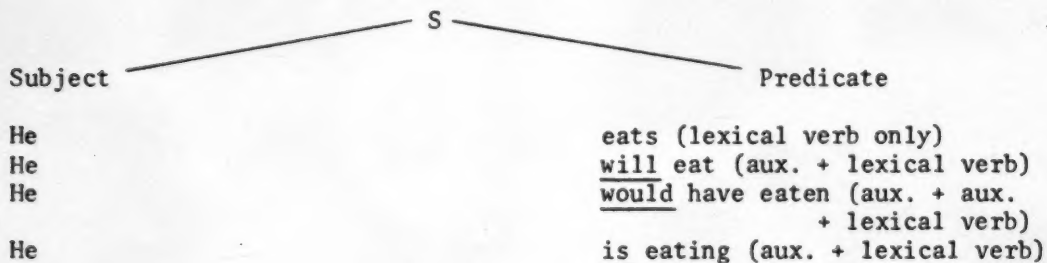
(4) Embedded Clauses

INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3, the underlying structure of the English sentence was examined. Seven basic patterns were listed and each sample sentence appeared as a positive, active statement. There are many additional forms which the sentence can take, depending on which rules are applied to the underlying pattern. Applying certain rules will produce such forms as the negative, the passive or the question; applying other rules will produce sentences with relative clauses or noun phrase complements; still other rules will produce sentences with *it* or *there* in the subject position, where *it* does not refer to any previous noun and *there* does not refer to a place. These rules which transform the underlying structure into the various sentence forms are called transformational rules. This chapter is concerned with these sentence forms and with the relationships between them.

6.0 AFFIRMATIVE

An affirmative sentence asserts a truth. It is composed of a subject and a predicate, which includes a lexical verb and one or more auxiliary verbs. The following diagram illustrates this.



The auxiliary that occurs first in a predicate performs specific syntactic functions and is thus labeled the operator. In the above illustration, note that the first sentence has no operator and that *will* and *would* are the operators in the next two sentences.

The verb *be* can act as an operator whether it is an auxiliary, as in the fourth sample above, or not, as in:

He is sick.

6.1 NEGATIVE

Syntactically, the negative can appear in a number of different forms.

6.11 Negative with not/n't

The negative is formed by the insertion of *not* or *n't* between the operator and the rest of the predicate. Thus the sample sentences listed in 6.0 in the negative would appear as:

He <u>will not</u> eat.	or	He <u>won't</u> eat.
He <u>would not</u> have eaten.	or	He <u>wouldn't</u> have eaten.
He <u>is not</u> eating.	or	He <u>isn't</u> eating.

Where there is no auxiliary operator, a *do* operator or "dummy"-*do* is added.

e.g. He eats.		
He <u>does not</u> eat.	or	He <u>doesn't</u> eat.

Like the auxiliary operators, the "dummy"-*do* is followed by the infinitive without *to*. This means that it bears the tense and number markers that are borne by the lexical verb in the positive statement.

e.g. He eats.	He <u>doesn't</u> eat.
They eat.	They <u>don't</u> eat.
They ate.	They <u>didn't</u> eat.

6.12 Negative with adverbs or pronouns

Negative meaning can be expressed by the use of certain adverbs or pronouns.

e.g. He <u>never</u> eats.
He <u>is no longer</u> eating.
He <u>neither ate nor</u> drank.
He <u>rarely</u> eats.
<u>No one</u> ate.

6.2 QUESTIONS

Questions provoke a response which generally provides information needed by the person who asked the question. Two major types of questions are the *Yes/No* questions and the *Wh-* question; one minor type of question is the tag question.

6.21 Yes/No Questions

Semantically, a Yes/No question expects a response that is either affirmation or rejection. A Yes/No question is formed by placing the operator before the subject, sometimes giving the resulting sentence a rising intonation.

e.g. He will eat.
Will he eat?

He is eating.
Is he eating?

He would have eaten.
Would he have eaten?

If there is no verb that can function as an operator, "dummy"-do is introduced, as in the negation. (6.11)

e.g. He eats.
Does he eat?

6.22 Wh- Questions

Wh- questions expect a reply that provides information. They are marked by falling, not rising, intonation and are formed with the use of one of the following question words (or Q-words): *who/whom, whose, what, which, when, where, how, why*. To construct the wh- question the operator or "dummy"-do is placed before the subject and then the Q-word is fronted (placed at the beginning of the sentence). Other words may accompany the Q-word.

e.g. What will he eat? (Q-word + operator + subject + verb).
Where is he eating?
Which meal did he eat?
In which room did he eat?

In cases where the Q-element replaces the subject, there is no inversion of subject-operator.

e.g. Who is eating in the kitchen?

6.23 Tag Questions

A question tagged onto a statement suggests an assumption (in the statement) and an expectation (in the tag). The meaning of the expectation can vary depending on the particular combination

of positive or negative statement and positive or negative tag;
and depending on intonation - a tag with a falling tone invites
confirmation. This is illustrated in the following sample sen-
tences and paraphrases.

- i He works hard, doesn't he?
(rising inton.) I assume he works hard; am I right?
(falling inton.) I know he works hard; agree with me.
- ii He doesn't work hard, does he?
(rising inton.) I assume he doesn't work hard; am I right?
(falling inton.) I know he doesn't work hard; agree with me.

The tag question is formed by inverting an operator and a pro-
noun with or without a negative particle. The choice and tense of
the operator depend on the verb phrase in the statement.

- e.g. He will eat, won't he?
He hasn't eaten, has he?
It's beautiful, isn't it?
He knows that, doesn't he?

6.3 COMMANDS

A command directs someone to do something; a negative command
forbids an action. A command generally has no subject and uses the
imperative form (infinitive without to) of the verb. It occurs in
the same patterns as the statement. Compare the following to the
patterns in chapter 2.

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| e.g. Sit. | InV | (pattern IV) |
| Be quiet | V + adj. | (pattern I) |
| Put that down. | Tr.V + N ² | (pattern V) |

Imperative verbs are not marked for tense or perfect aspect and may
be (but only quite rarely) marked for progressive aspect or passive.

- e.g. Be advised that you owe us \$100.00.
Be working when I get back.

Negation is formed by the placement of *don't* before the verb.

- e.g. Don't be late.

The force of the command can be lessened by the addition of *please* before the verb or by varying the intonation of the command.

A "subject" can be named.

- e.g. John, sit down.
You, put that down.

6.4 IT AS SUBJECT

It often appears in the subject position of a sentence. In this position, *it* can refer to a previously mentioned noun.

- e.g. I bought a new lamp; it's in the living room.

It can also serve a syntactic function only, being almost devoid of semantic content.

- e.g. It's raining.

Syntactically, *it* can allow the rearrangement of certain structures to give end-weight or end focus.

- e.g. To teach her English is a pleasure.
It is a pleasure to teach her English.

6.5 THERE AS SUBJECT

A statement with *there* in the subject position expresses a notion of existence. A statement that has an indefinite subject and a form of *be* in the verb phrase can be rearranged to produce a sentence which uses *there* in subject position.

- e.g. A teacher is in the room.
There is a teacher in the room.

The second sample is generally preferred to the first, because there is some awkwardness in initiating a statement with an indefinite noun phrase.

6.6 EMBEDDED SENTENCES

The simple clause structure consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. It is possible, through a series of transformational

rules, to combine two clauses so that one is embedded in the other. Elements in the embedded clause may be deleted in the process. This happens in the cases of infinitive complements, restrictive relative clauses, noun phrase complements.

6.61 Infinitive Complements

Examine this sentence.

John wants Sally to leave.

Although it appears as a simple sentence, it comes from two ideas: that John wants (something) and that Sally "leaves". When the second clause is embedded in the first, it appears with its subject intact and an infinitive verb.

Compare the above sample to:

John wants to leave.

Here it is John that both wants and does the leaving. Because the subject is the same in both clauses, when the second clause is embedded in the first, its subject is deleted.

6.62 Restrictive Relative Clauses

A sentence that contains a restrictive relative clause is the product of embedding one clause in another.

e.g. The argument is false. John presented the argument.
The argument that John presented is false. (R. Rel.)

This transformation can only occur if a noun in the first clause is identical to a noun in the second, in this case *argument*. Notice that in the embedding process, the *argument* in the second clause is deleted and replaced by *that*, which is then fronted.

6.63 Noun Phrase Complements

A sentence with a noun phrase complement is also the product of embedding one clause in another. Often the result appears very similar to the restrictive relative clause, but there is a difference. Compare the restrictive relative clause sentence, given above, and the sentence containing a noun phrase complement, given below.

(The argument is false. Columbus discovered America.)

The argument that Columbus discovered America is false. (N.P.Comp.)

The difference lies in the two original clauses. Here there are no nouns that are identical; thus in the resulting sentence *that* is an addition and does not replace any noun. The original clause - *Columbus discovered America* - remains intact.

EXERCISES

1. In the following sentences, underline the operator and put an X beside any sentence that has no operator.

1. The train could have arrived late.
2. Susan read the whole book in one night.
3. My sister will babysit for us.
4. Half the class was absent.
5. He jogs half a mile every day.
6. The boy isn't playing in our yard today.
7. You have eaten half the cake!

2. From the following sentence, write three questions, a Yes/No, a Wh- and a Tag. If any existing elements are changed or any new elements are added, explain why.

John bought a record.

3. Beside each of the following, reconstruct the clause that was embedded.

1. The idea that working hours should be flexible is sound.
2. Bob was eager to write the exam.
3. The girl that you like is coming in.
4. I imagine her beautiful.
5. John didn't like the girl Sam was dating.
6. Sally expected me to visit her.
7. It is likely that John will fail.

IMPLICATIONS

1. Negatives

Rules of negation are often poorly incorporated into a learner's speech. Because negation is a universal concept, and necessary for

existence even from the learner's first conversation in English, students will quickly learn that the insertion of *no* into a sentence produces a negative. Thus we occasionally hear sentences like

*I no can leave.

The placement of the negative element is confusing; it seems to appear before the verb in some sentences and after the verb in others.

e.g. He doesn't work.
He is not home.

As well, there seems no obvious reason to add *do/does/did* to carry the negative in some sentences, but not others.

To aid the students, certain points must be explained. It is helpful for the student to understand the relationship between the affirmative and negative statement. It is the lack of operator in the affirmative pattern that necessitates the addition of the "dummy"-*do* in the negative. Contrasting diagrams may clarify this.

e.g. We	will	work.	We	work.
We	<u>will</u> + not	work.	We	<u> </u> + not work.
He	could	work.	He	worked.
He	<u>could</u> + not	work.	He	<u> </u> (ed) + not work.
He	is	working.	He	works.
He	<u>is</u> + not	working.	He	<u> </u> (s) + not work.

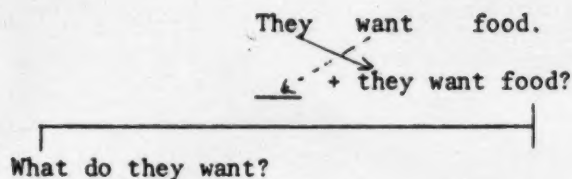
2. Questions

Questions can be as confusing to learners as the negative. Here again there is no obvious reason for the introduction of *do/does/did* nor does the inversion system seem particularly logical. Diagrams may help learners see these relationships.

e.g. We	will	work.	We	work.
Will	we	work?	<u> </u>	+ we work?
He	is	sick.	He	works.
Is	he	sick?	<u> </u>	+ he work?

*Indicates ungrammatical sentence

And for Q-word questions:



Drills, or fill-in-the-word exercises, or exercises where words are rearranged and additions made can also help students understand the question and negative forms.

Perfect production cannot be expected the first time these forms are taught. Most probably, students will acquire these structures in stages, such as inversion before *do* insertion. They may also focus on the wrong clues. Often, either because Yes/No questions with *be* are drilled so often or because they are so easily distinguishable in conversation, learners conclude that all Yes/No questions begin with *is*.

e.g. *Is I can leave?

Often, for similar reasons, poorly assimilated rules are combined.

e.g. *Do he can leave?

To prevent such conclusions and to erase them if they are formed, clarification of the relationships between statements and questions is essential.

3. Tag Questions

Tag questions should not be introduced before Yes/No questions have been taught. Even then, the students may only need to understand the implications rather than produce the tag forms.

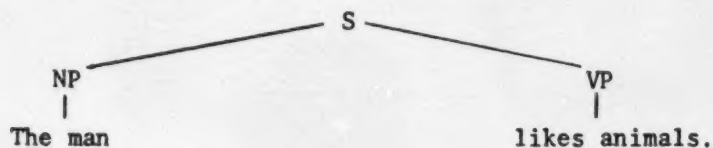
4. Embedded Clauses

The structures examined in the section of embedded clauses are commonly taught in intermediate and advanced classes in reading or writing skills. In the cases of relative clauses and noun phrase complements, understanding the relationship between the original

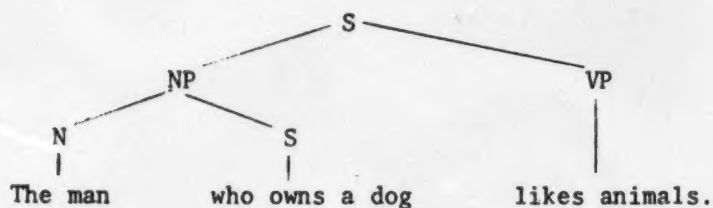
*Indicates ungrammatical sentence

simple clauses and the resulting more complex ones can help the student enormously. Exercises in embedding clauses or in reconstructing the original clauses will clarify these relationships. Often a simple sentence diagram is useful.

e.g. 1. Simple sentence



2. Sentence with R.Rel. clause



INTRODUCTION

This book has been concerned mainly with the grammar that a teacher might need for the ESL classroom. From the structural sequencing and description of many of the items and from the many references to the problems of teaching grammar in the Implications sections, the reader might conclude that knowledge of grammar is the major objective in the ESL classroom. However, this is not the case. The objective for an ESL learner is overall communicative competence in the language.

For many reasons, it is often easy for the teacher to lose sight of this objective. This is particularly true of teachers whose students are adolescent or adults - old enough to ask questions about grammar. This chapter will discuss the reasons for this tendency, and will attempt to illustrate how the goal of communicative competence might best be achieved through a combination of structural and functional approaches.

7.0 Teachers of English as a second language are primarily concerned with what it is that a student needs to know to communicate effectively. In order to improve their students' performance, teachers usually focus on teaching their students the syntactic and phonological rules of the language. These rules are either explicitly or implicitly taught. Mastery of these rules, often referred to as linguistic competence, is usually associated with successful performance in the language. Teachers have had confidence in this association for many theoretical and practical reasons.

First, this view has had the sanction of many linguists. These linguists believe that only the form of language should be their concern, that grammar is an idealized framework that underlies what people actually say or write. They are interested in the internal workings of the linguistic system, the internal formal properties of sentences (Allen, 1977, p.6). This structural view of language has been applied to language teaching even though it was not intended to have any pedagogical implications. Texts appeared that were based on sequences of grammatical structures; later, even texts whose basis was a series of relevant situations devoted a major percentage of space to grammatical explanations and exercises. Although the methodology has varied considerably, the overriding implication - that knowledge of grammar is imperative for an ESL student - has remained almost unchanged.

A second reason that teachers have had confidence in the structural view of language teaching was the reality of the classroom situation. When a student failed to communicate, the factors most easily identified were either syntactic or phonological. The teacher's obvious solution to these problems was to further clarify the rules of the language, that is - how the language "works". In addition, teachers are usually under some pressure to evaluate their students fairly and objectively. It is understandably easier to measure students' comprehension and production of particular structures than to evaluate their overall communicative abilities. For these reasons, many ESL classes focus on

teaching rules of language, and tests often focus on measuring areas of linguistic competence.

There is, however, another aspect of communication which is excluded from the structural description of language. There are certain factors in combination with grammatical constraints which govern our use of language. Although any number of different structures are available to us to express a message, the particular form we use depends on the situation, the other speakers involved, and our own experience. The structural description of language does not account for the speaker's ability to produce coherent discourse which is situationally relevant, nor for the speaker's ability to use the language appropriately for the performance of a variety of communicative acts such as asking questions, making promises, giving orders, making statements and so on.

This ability is often referred to as Communicative Competence. A communicative description does take into account these factors and seeks to discover how a speaker selects particular forms in response to a situation. There are major differences between the structural and communicative approaches.

First, the structural approach focuses on form while the communicative approach focuses on function. For example, imagine a speaker stating:

"It's stuffy in here."

A structural analysis will note which of the available patterns underlies the statement, what transformations were necessary to arrive at this sentence and what parts of speech were used. On the other hand, a communicative analysis will be concerned with what function the statement serves: was the speaker expressing disapproval, requesting that a window be opened, or suggesting that everyone leave the room?

Secondly, the two approaches focus on different units as a basis for description. The structural approach uses the sentence as its basic unit. However, since the function of a sentence is clearly inextricable from its context, the communicative approach uses the speech act as the basic unit of description.

Speech acts are utterances that combine a "propositional" content with a certain "illocutionary" force. In the example given, the propositional content was a statement about the atmosphere of the room, but the illocutionary force was probably a request for opening a window.

The two approaches also differ in their focuses on the goals of language learners. In the traditional view, the student's main challenge is to master the grammar structures. If a student knows the grammatical system of language he has succeeded. The second approach focuses on control of situations. A student is presented with the functions a structure has in spoken or written contexts. The difficulty that the second approach tries to overcome is that a student may understand or produce a structure correctly but may completely misunderstand the illocutionary force of his statement.

There are many examples of language learners producing structures correctly and still failing to communicate. For instance, all the following examples could be produced perfectly, even by a beginner, and yet the effect of some might be far from desirable, depending on the situation:

1. You, give me the salt.
2. Give me the salt.
3. Please, give me the salt.
4. Would you please give me the salt.
5. Would you mind giving me the salt.

A student would probably not understand that the second example is overly familiar; if not used in familial-type groups it is likely to offend. Equally, the student would probably not understand that the last example is overly formal, or that it is often an expression of annoyance as much as a request.

Similarly, a language learner could misunderstand:

Well, it was nice talking to you.

This might be taken as a comment on the quality of the conversation, rather than as a move to terminate it.

Poor communication can also result from the misuse of questions, which may very well be correctly constructed. A student would not know that *How are you?* is often a greeting, not an enquiry

into one's health; that *How do you do?* is used for initial introductions only; or that *Do you earn a lot of money?* is not commonly acceptable.

All these examples illustrate the kinds of problems learners encounter if they have focussed exclusively on structure. Clearly, no amount of structural control can guarantee communicative effectiveness.

The two approaches have had different effects on ESL teaching. As noted earlier, the structural approach led to structural and situational syllabuses and to teachers focusing on the linguistic competence of their students. The communicative approach is leading to functional or notional syllabuses, in which each section of a course deals with a different function (ordering, identifying, requesting, etc.) and to teachers focusing on the communicative competence of their students. It has been suggested that the notional syllabus is best suited to classes of advanced students, or adults whose needs are specific, for example, students of a particular subject, or employees needing competence in specific areas. Although a functional syllabus is probably suited only to a minority of students, the functional view of language is appropriate to all classes.

There are weighty implications in the above for teachers: the focus of classes should be communication not grammar; situations for conversational practice should be created and should take precedence over drill practice; in any grammatical explanations necessary, functional components must be included; texts which provide communicative practice in addition to or in place of structural practice should be chosen; and testing should focus on evaluating communication rather than on measuring grammatical knowledge. The foregoing does not imply that grammatical explanations and exercises have no place in the classroom (although there is recent evidence from the field of psycho-linguistics that overt grammar teaching may have very little effect on adult production - Krashen, 1977). It does imply that a teacher cannot spend the majority of class time on grammar. If students are to function effectively in the language, the focus must be on communication in the language and not on talk about the language.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Allen, Patrick, "Structural and Functional Models in Language Teaching." TESL TALK 8.1 (January 1977). 5-15
- Boyd, J.C. and Thorne, J.P. "The Semantics of Modal Verbs." Journal of Linguistics 5 (1969). 34-45.
- Burt, Marina K. "Error Analysis in the Adult EFL Classroom." The Human Factors in ESL. Eds. James Alatis and Ruth Crymes. Washington: TESOL, 1977. pp. 45-56
- Crowell, Thomas Lee, Jr. Index to Modern English. Saxon Series in English as a Second Language. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964.
Articles, pp. 40-54; Clauses, pp. 101-109;
Semicolon, p.341; Time Tense, p. 384;
Pre-Nom. Modifiers, pp. 424-432.
- Ehrman, Madeleine. The Meanings of the Modals in Present American English. The Hague: Mouton, 1966.
- Frank, Marcella. Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.
Parts of Speech, Chapter 1; Nouns, Chapter 2;
Verbs, Chapter 4.
- French, F.C. English in Tables. London: Oxford University Press, 1960.
Articles, Tables 10, 45, 46, 47;
Pre-Nom. Modifiers, Tables 2D, 45.
- Fries, C.C. American English Grammar. New York: Appleton-Century Crafts, 1940.
Inflection, Chapters V, VI.
- Gleason, H.A. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, revised edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1961.
- Halliday, M.A.K. "Language Structure and Language Function." New Horizons in Linguistics. Ed. John Lyons. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1970. pp. 140-165
Structural vs. Functional.
- Hill, L.A. Selected Articles on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. London: Oxford University Press, 1967.
Time and Tense, Chapters 4, 5.
- Hockett, Charles F. A Course in Modern Linguistics. New York: Macmillan Co., 1958.
Function Words, Chapter 3.

- Hornby, A.S. A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English. London: Oxford University Press, 1954.
Pre-Nom. Modifiers, pp. 136-148, 153-157;
Time Tense, pp. 83-125.
- Jarvis, R.A. "A Pedagogical Grammar of the Modal Auxiliaries." English Language Teaching 26.1 (1971). 36-45.
- Joos, M. The English Verb, Form and Meanings. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1964.
- Knashen, Stephen D. "Some Issues Relating to the Monitor Model." ON TESOL '77. Ed. H. Douglas Brown et al. Washington: TESOL, 1977. pp. 144-159.
- Lado, Robert and Fries, Charles C. English Sentence Patterns. English Language Institute. Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1958.
Articles, Lesson VI.
- Leech, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb. London: Longman, 1972.
- Leech, Geoffrey and Svartik, Jan. A Communicative Grammar of English. London: Longman Ltd., 1975.
Articles, pp. 61-90; Coordination, p. 223;
Clauses, pp. 161-216; Passives, p. 257.
- Mackin, Ronald. Exercises in English Patterns and Usage. London: Oxford University Press, 1966.
Articles, Book 4; Inflection, pp. 40-52.
- Martin, Carson W. Teaching of English Grammar or Structure for Teachers of English as a Second Language, booklet.
Ontario Department of the Provincial Secretary and Citizenship.
Sentence Patterns.
- Palmer, F.R. A Linguistic Study of the English Verb. Miami: University of Miami Press, 1968.
Modals.
- Praninskas, Jean. Rapid Review of English Grammar, for students of English as a Second Language. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1957 - 2nd edition, 1975.
Articles, pp. 51-65; Sentence Patterns (Lessons XIII, XV);
Verbs, pp. 67-80, 81-94, 121, 183, 231, 259, 271.
- Quirk, R. et al. A Grammar of Contemporary English. London: Longman Ltd., 1972.
Modals (chapter 3).
- Quirk, Randolph and Greenbaum, Sydney. A University Grammar of English. London: Longman Ltd., 1973.
Commands, p. 200; Coordination, pp. 254-267;
End-Focus, pp. 410-412; Negatives and Questions, pp. 22-26;
Nouns, pp. 59-100; Parts of Speech, p.18;
Subordination, p. 313; There Sentences, p. 418;
Verbs and Tense. pp. 26-51.

Roberts, Paul. Modern Grammar. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1968.

PreNom Modifiers, pp. 30-34, 63, 67, 77-95.

Rutherford, W.E. Modern English, a Textbook for Foreign Students. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1968.

Sentence Patterns, pp. 345-349, 362.

Rutherford, W.E. Deep and Surface Structure and the Language Drill.

California: U.C.L.A., March 1968.

Sentence Patterns.

Stageberg, Norman. An Introductory English Grammar. New York:

Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1967.

Basic Sentence Patterns, pp. 169-190;

PreNom Modifiers, pp. 235-255.

Stratton, Florence. "Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its

Place." TESOL Quarterly, 11 No. 2, June, 1977, pp. 131-141.

Thomas, Owen. Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English.

2nd edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1974.

R. Rel. Clauses and N.P. Complements, pp. 198-210;

Two-word Verbs, pp. 125-128; Verbs, pp. 118-150.

Twadell, William F. English Verb Auxiliaries. 2nd revised edition.

Providence: Brown U. Press, 1963.

Wilkins, D.A. Notional Syllabuses. London: Oxford University Press, 1977.

The Key to English - Two-Word Verbs. English Language Services.

New York: Collier-MacMillan International, 1964.

INDEX

- Adjectives, 1.3
 - Position, 1.41
 - Comparison, 1.32
 - as Premodifiers, 3.1, 3.16
- Adverbial, 4.6
 - Methodology, p 21
- Adverbs, 1.4
 - Form, 1.41
 - Function, 1.42
 - Position, 1.43
 - as Premodifier, 3.16 (i) (iv)
 - Expressing Negative, 6.12
- Affirmative Statements, 6.0
- Appositives, 3.24
- Articles, 3.3
 - as Determiners, 3.14
 - A(n) vs. No Article, 3.31
 - with Mass Nouns and End Count Nouns, 3.31 (1) - (3)
 - The vs. A(n) vs. No Article, 3.32
 - in other Languages, p 52
 - Methodology, p 57
- Aspect, 4.22
 - and Voice, 1.24
 - Methodology, p 21
- Auxiliary Verbs, 4.40
 - Structural, 4.41
 - Modal, 4.42
 - Operator (in Questions and Negatives), 6.0 - 6.2
- 'Be'
 - Inflection, 1.22 (i) (ii)
 - in Patterns, 2.11, 2.12, 2.13
 - as Copula, 4.1 (3)
- Cause/Reason
 - in Adverbials, 4.6 (2) (i)
- Commands, 6.3
- Condition
 - in Adverbials, 4.6 (2) (ii)
- Conditional
 - with Past, 4.21 (i) (ii)

Contrast
in Adverbial Clauses, 4.6 (2) (i)

Coordination and Subordination, 5.0
Semantic Implications, 5.1
Methodology, pp 90-91

Copula, 4.1 (3)

Determiners, 3.14
Articles, 3.3

Embedded Sentences, 6.6
Methodology, pp 99-101

End Weight/Focus, 4.23
with *It* as Subject, 6.4
with *There* as Subject, 6.5

Finite vs. Non Finite, 4.5

Form Class, 1.0
Differences from Structure Words, p 18
Methodology, p 21

Frequency
in Adverbials, 4.6 (vi)

Function Words, 1.0, 1.5
Meaning, 1.51
Function, 1.52
Class Size, 1.53
Lack of Derivational Endings, 1.54
Differences from Form Classes, p 18
Methodology, p 21

Functional/Notional, 7.0

Future Time, 4.21 (3)
in Present Tense, 4.21 (2) (iv)

Genitive
Nouns, 1.12 (2)
Pronouns, 1.13 (2) (ii)

Gerund
as Premodifier, 3.16 (1) (ii)
in Patterns, 2.15

Ideational Meaning, 4.42

Imperative, 6.3

Infinitive Complements, 6.61
in Patterns, 2.15
as Non Finite, 4.5

Inflection
 Nouns, 1.12
 Pronouns, 1.13 (2)
 Methodology, pp 21-22

 Intransitive Verbs, 4.1 (2)

 It as Subject, 6.4

 Lexical Verbs, 4.3
 Two-word Verbs, 4.3 (1)

 Linking Verbs (see Copula), 4.1 (3)
 in Patterns, 2.18, 2.19

 Mass Nouns, 3.31
 Number, 1.12 (1)
 Methodology, p 57

 Modals, 4.42
 for Future Time, 4.21 (3) (i)
 Methodology, p 84

 Morpheme, 4.21 (1)

 Negative, 6.1
 with not/n't, 6.11
 with adverbs and pronouns, 6.12
 with commands, 6.3
 Methodology, p 99

 Nominals, 3.41

 Notional, 7.0

 Noun Phrase
 Structure, 3.0
 Functions, 3.4
 Complements, 6.63

 Nouns, 1.1
 Position, 1.11
 Inflection, 1.12
 Number, 1.12 (1)
 Genitive, 1.12 (2)
 as Premodifiers, 3.16

 Number
 Nouns, 1.12 (1)
 Pronouns, 1.13 (2) (i)
 Verbs, 1.22 (1)

 Operator, 6.0

 Parts of Speech, 1.10
 Methodology, p 19

Passive (see Voice)

Past Participle

as Premodifier, 3.16 (1) (iii)
as Non Finite, 4.5

Past Perfect, 4.22 (2)

Past Progressive, 4.22 (1)

Past Tense, 4.21 (1)

Position

Nouns, 1.11
Verbs, 1.21
Adjectives, 1.31, 3.16 (2)
Adverbs, 1.43

Possessive

Nouns, 1.12 (2)
Pronouns, 1.13 (2) (ii)
Meaning, 1.12 (2)

Postmodifier, 3.2

Word Modifiers, 3.21
Relative Clauses, 3.23
Appositives, 3.24

Predicate, 6.0

Premodifiers, 3.1

Restricters, 3.12
Predeterminers, 3.13
Determiners, 3.14
Postdeterminers, 3.15
Nouns and Adjectives, 3.16

Present Participle

as Premodifier, 3.16 (1) (i)
as Non Finite, 4.5

Present Perfect, 4.22 (2)

Present Progressive, 4.22 (1)

Present Tense, 4.21 (2)

for Future Time, 4.21 (3) (iii)

Pronouns, 1.13

Position, 1.13 (1)
Inflection, 1.13 (2)
Expressing the Negative, 6.12

Questions, 6.2
 Yes/No, 6.21
 Wh-, 6.22
 Tag, 6.23
 Methodology, p 100

Relative Clauses, 6.62
 as Postmodifiers, 3.23
 Restrictive vs. Non-restrictive, 3.23 (1)

Reported Speech, 4.21 (1) (iii)

Sentence Patterns, 2.1
 Methodology, p 32

Statements, 6.0

Structure Words, 1.0
 (see Function Words, 1.5)

Subordination (see Coordination), 5.0

Subject, 6.0

Tense/Time, 4.21
 Tense, 1.23
 Methodology, p 21

There as Subject, 6.5

Transitive Verbs, 4.1 (1)
 in Patterns, 2.15, 2.17

Two-word Verbs, 4.3 (1)
 Methodology, p 84

Verbs, 1.2
 Position, 1.21
 Inflection, 1.22
 Number, 1.22 (1)
 Person, 1.22 (2)
 Tense, 1.23
 Verb Phrase, 4.0
 Verb Patterns, 4.1
 Grammatical Properties, 4.2

Verb Patterns, 4.1
 Transitive, 4.1 (1)
 Intransitive, 4.1 (2)
 Copula, 4.1 (3)

Verb Phrase, 4.0

Voice, 4.23
 and Aspect, 1.24
 Methodology, pp 83-84

Word Order, 2.0
 Methodology, p 32
 of Premodifiers, p 38